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THE
ROAD TO KNOWLEDGE;

OR,

Young Man & Woman's Best Friend;

BEING A PLAN OF
GENERAL INSTRUCTION,

As far as relates to the
USEFUL PURSUITS AND PURPOSES OF LIFE.

Consisting of a Concise, yet Comprehensive

**GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE;
& Series of Letters**

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As more immediately adapted to the Attention of

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THE NATURE AND OPERATIONS OF

Bills of Exchange
Bills of Sale
Bonds
Obligations
Notes

Letters of Attorney
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Writs
Warrants
Arrests

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AND VARIOUS OTHER INSTRUMENTS OF WRITING;

With the precise Forms in which many of these are drawn up.

TO THE WHOLE ARE SUBJOINED,

GEOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES;

Comprehending the Rise and Progress of

Geography;

WITH AN EXPLANATION OF

GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS,

And a Description of the several

KINGDOMS AND STATES OF EUROPE.

By GEORGE STAPLETON,

Late English Preceptor at Paris and at Brussels.

London:

Printed by J. ADLARD, Duke Street, West Smithfield;
And sold by W. TREPPASS, George Street, Follen Lane, Cheap-side.

1797.



ERRATUM.

In Page 82, where BILLS OF EXCHANGE are introduced, for *Commercial Business*, read *Commercial AND OTHER Business*.

Entered at Stationers' Hall.

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PREFACE.

IN that important object *Education*, the genius of pupils, as well as the views of their parents, ought to be particularly considered. Young persons, designed for high stations in life, require a liberal Education; and those intended for humbler situations, should be brought up in those pursuits to which they are best adapted.

Sorry am I to rank among the illiterate classes of Society many of our English *School-masters*. These bright models for youthful pupils, these distinguished luminaries in the world of Science, do little credit to their profession: and less still is done by our numerous *French Governesses*; who, however, have vanity enough to conceive themselves well calculated by abilities and genius.

While I was at Brussels, one of these *Governesses* was there, with an English family who had come from Paris; that is, she was *Lady's Woman*, and could talk a little bad French. I knew her master and mistress well, and found that the vanity of their servant *Betty* had suggested the design of becoming *School-mistress* in England; and she is now a *French Teacher* in a Ladies School at Kensington.

It is to the tuition of such ignorant pretenders, that the time and talents of too many young people are sacrificed.

The most distinguishing accomplishment which a young man or woman can possess, is the speaking, reading, and writing, with propriety, their mother tongue. They cannot do justice to their own sentiments, but in their own language; they may observe the rules of a foreign tongue, and in some degree write grammatically; but they can never take those

free.

freedoms with it, by which the higher beauties of stile are acquired.

Of all the modern languages, the English is justly stiled the best. The French, indeed, is natural and easy; the words are arranged much in the same order as the ideas in our minds; but, with regard to the analogy of Grammar, and the simplicity with which the moods of verbs are formed, the English has far the advantage over it; and, indeed, over every other language. The perfections ascribed to it are, that it is strong and significant; to which its compounds, formed on the model of the Greeks, do not a little contribute; that it is copious, elegant, and musical; that, by mere force of poetical numbers, blank verse produces in it harmony; and that rhyme is equally natural to it, varying itself with peculiar sweetness, and at the same time presenting the most sublime and beautiful objects of nature: it is smooth and placid, warm and pathetic, gentle and flowing, full and sonorous; feasting the ear, the fancy, and the heart; and, crowned with ornaments formed after the models, or answering to our ideas, of perfect nature, it animates every passion of the soul, and inspires the most elevated sentiments.

The following sheets consist of an **ENGLISH GRAMMAR**; **LETTERS** on different subjects; **RULES of ARITHMETIC**; a **SERIES of INFORMATION** respecting general Business; and **GEOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES**, tracing the origin and progress of **GEOGRAPHY**, and curiously describing the several countries of Europe.

With respect to the **LETTERS**, which are indiscriminately given, the stile of each is adapted to its subject.

The advantages of writing above speech are, that the former is both a more extensive and more permanent mode of communication; it is the art of exhibiting to the sight the conceptions of the mind,

We find that the writing of ancient nations consisted in **PICTURES**, **HIEROGLYPHICS**, and **SYMBOLS**: **PICTURES** were undoubtedly the first essay towards it, and indeed constituted the only kind of writing known in Mexico, when America was first discovered. **HIEROGLYPHICS** were studied in Egypt, and reduced to a regular art, though a very imperfect vehicle of knowledge.

As Writing advanced from **PICTURES** to **HIEROGLYPHICS** and **SYMBOLS**,

Symbols, so from the latter did it advance to simple arbitrary marks which stood for objects, though without any resemblance of the objects signified. The Peruvians used little cords, and by knots variously arranged contrived a mode of information and communication from one person to another.

Thus, for a great length of time, nothing appears to have been invented which resembled our letters, or what can be called Writing in the sense now given to that term ; all that was known were mere signs for things. At last, however, in consequence of the imperfection, the ambiguity, and tediousness of these modes of communication, exertions were made, in different nations, to strike into some method of inventing signs, not for each word by itself, but for each of those simple sounds that are employed in forming words. They succeeded, and by degrees accomplished the invention of an Alphabet of Syllables.

And now some happy Genius, tracing the sounds made by the human voice to their most simple elements, reduced them to Vowels and Consonants ; and, by fixing to each of these the signs which we now call Letters, taught men how, by their combination, to put into Writing all the different words, or combinations of sound, which they employed in Speech : and, by being reduced to this simplicity, the Art of Writing was brought to its highest state of perfection.

Writing and Speaking are pictures of the mind ; which are quick, and comprehend at one view, as it were, several objects. Consequently, what is necessary for the arrangement of terms is, that they may be so connected as to express properly the idea we mean to convey as quick as possible. Thoughts should be uttered as they are conceived. To think rationally, things must be expressed in such order, that those may first engage our attention which by their conspicuousity will serve to illustrate the rest.

Order and variety are inseparable from polished language: these constitute dignity, harmony, and politeness. By politeness is meant not only those genteel terms which distinguish people of good breeding and education, but also an easy and elegant manner of writing and speaking.

Writing cannot be beautiful, unless each word ushers in succeeding ideas uninterruptedly as they rise, one after another. No word should be placed at a distance, the immediate

diate sense of which is necessary for illustrating what is gone before. Good writers get not into long-winded periods; nor do they use parentheses, except by real necessity; for these periods and parentheses keep the mind in suspense, embarrass it, and render the subject less clear, intelligible, and uniform. Whoever is happy enough to conceive the principles of a language, wants nothing towards acquiring it but a willing mind and application; which seldom fail to render perfect, natural, and graceful, what might at first appear aukward, difficult, and unpleasant.

We now recommend to the Reader's attention the following sheets, which we hope, in their variety, will be found both instructive and amusing. If order be necessary, so is variety: without this, the mind languishes. History pleases, from the variety of its accounts; Romance, from the variety of its incidents; the Drama, from the variety of its representations. The soul naturally loves it; and the love is commendable, if consistent with the principles of virtue; principles sinking deep into the heart, and ultimately carrying its emotions to the noblest ends.



A CONCISE, YET
COMPREHENSIVE
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR is the Art of expressing our Sentiments with Propriety, and is divided into Four Parts, viz. ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, and PROSODY.

ORTHOGRAPHY

Teaches to spell Words with proper Letters: it is the Art of combining Letters into Syllables, and Syllables into Words.

There are twenty-six letters in our language, viz. *a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z*: these are called vowels and consonants.

A VOWEL affords a complete sound of itself; it is a letter so simple, as only to need a bare opening of the mouth to make it heard: such are *a, e, i, o, u*: to which we may add *y*, as having every property of a vowel, and not one of a consonant. A compound vowel, or diphthong, is the union of two or more vowels pronounced by a single impulse of the voice. The diphthongs *ai, ei, oi*, &c. are never written at the end of words, as for *ai*, at the end of a word *ay* is written, as *day, pay, delay*: for *ei*, is written *ey*, as *wey, grey, hey*; for *oi*, *oy*, as *boy, toy, joy*, &c.

B

A CON-

A **CONSONANT** is a letter which produces no sound alone; but, joined with a vowel, forms a compound articulate sound; *j* and *v* are consonants; they are quite different from the vowels *i* and *u*, and are distinct letters of themselves. They are divided into single and double; the single amount to twenty-one: *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z*. These are divided into mutes and half-vowels; four of the half vowels are called liquids. A mute is a letter which is not sounded or heard in pronunciation without a vowel, as *b, c, d, f, g, k, p, q, t*. Half-vowels make no perfect sound, without a letter added: these are *l, m, n, r, s, v, x, z*. Double consonants are two or three consonants meeting together, as *bl, br, ck, thr, &c.*

SYLLABLES form a part of a word, or an articulate sound, consisting of letters pronounced together. From the number of them in words, they are denominated monosyllables, bisyllables, trisyllables, and polysyllables. The first is a word of one syllable; the second of two; the third, of three; and the fourth, of many syllables. With respect to the division of them in spelling; the best and easiest rule is to divide them as they are naturally divided in a right pronunciation, without regard to the derivation of words, or the combination of consonants at the beginning of a syllable.

WORDS are an assemblage of several Letters, forming one or more syllables; they are distinct, articulate sounds, agreed on by mankind to convey their sentiments: they are divided into eight parts of speech, called noun, pronoun, verb, participle, adverb, conjunction, preposition and interjection: they are either primitive or derivative, simple or compound. A primitive or simple word is not formed of any other, as *man, good, hope, kind, &c.* A derivative word is a primitive or simple one, with the addition of a syllable to it, as *ed, ing, &c.* and a compound word is formed of two or more simple words, as *school-master, dancing-master, &c.*

PUNCTUATION is the art of pointing; or of dividing a discourse into periods, and members of periods, by points expressing the pauses to be made in reading thereof. There is more difficulty in pointing than many people are aware of: indeed, there is scarce any thing in the province of grammarians so little fixed and ascertained as this. Some of them lay down grammar rules for it; but as a mere grammarian

marian is a mere blockhead, their rules are not worth attending to. Few precise rules can be given which will hold, without exception, in all cases, but much must be left to the judgment and taste of the writer. The several degrees of connexion between sentences, and between their principal constructive parts, are to be considered under the distinctions of comma, semicolon, colon, and period.

The comma (,) is the shortest pause, and distinguishes the conjunct members of sentences, as "O sing unto the Lord, for he is merciful, long suffering, slow to wrath, abounding in goodness and truth." The semicolon (;) is a pause rather longer than a comma; and the colon (:) is used when the sense is complete, but the sentence not ended. A period (.) is the greatest pause, and is made when the sentence is ended; as, "Learning makes life sweet, and produces pleasure, tranquillity, and praise."

Besides the above points, there are the interrogation (?) and exclamation (!) points, which are sufficiently explained by their names.

ETYMOLOGY

Is that part of Grammar which deduces and explains the Origin and Derivation of Words, in order that we may have a knowledge of their first or primary signification.

By eight parts of speech, are meant eight sorts of words; for though there are thousands of words in our language, yet there are only eight sorts, viz. noun, pronoun, verb, participle, adverb, conjunction, preposition, and interjection; as I have mentioned under the head ORTHOGRAPHY.

Nouns are divided into Nouns Substantive, and Nouns Adjective. A noun substantive is the thing itself; as, *a man, a boy, a girl*; and the adjective expresses the qualities or properties of a thing, as *handsome, poor, &c.* For if any one should say "I see a handsome, or a poor," he would not be understood, unless a substantive be added, as "I see a hand-

ome *woman*, or a poor *man*." Adjectives, in reality, are only the modificatives of nouns; though in one view they may be considered as nouns, viz. as they do not so much represent a quality or circumstance of the object, as the object itself, clothed with that quality or circumstance: nor must it be omitted, that a noun adjective frequently becomes a substantive; for as its nature is to express the quality of an object, if that quality happen to be the object itself spoken of, then it becomes a substantive. Thus if I say, "a good intention," the word *good* is an adjective, representing the intention as clothed with the quality of goodness; but if I say, "the good is to be chosen," it is evident that *good* is here the subject spoken of, and consequently is a noun substantive.

Nouns are again divided into proper and appellative: nouns proper, are those which express a particular thing or person, so as to distinguish it from all other things of the same kind; as, *Socrates*. Nouns appellative are those common to several individuals of the same kind; as, *man*, *angel*, &c.

Nouns substantive, and sometimes adjective, and other parts of speech, become verbs; (which will be treated of in their proper place) in which case the vowel is often lengthened, or the consonant softened, as, *a house*, *to house*; *glass*, *to glaze*; *grass*, *to graze*; *breath*, *to breathe*, &c. Sometimes the termination *en* is added, especially to adjectives; as, *haste*, *to hasten*; *length*, *to lengthen*; *strength*, *to strengthen*; *soft*, *to soften*.

From adjectives are derived verbs. by adding *en*; as, from *white*, *to whiten*; *black*, *to blacken*; *fast*, *to fasten*. From verbs are derived the active participle that ends in *ing*, and the passive that ends in *ed* or *en*; as, *loving*, *loved*; *giving*, *given*: and from these verbs come substantives; as, *love*, *lover*; *hear*, *bearer*; *play*, *player*, &c. And these kinds of nouns are called verbal nouns.

By adding the termination *y* to substantives, are formed adjectives of plenty; as *health*, *healthy*; *wealth*, *wealthy*; *might*, *mighty*; *wit*, *witty*. And from substantives are also formed adjectives of plenty, by adding the termination *ful*, denoting abundance; as, *joy*, *joyful*; *fruit*, *fruitful*, &c. So likewise, by adding the termination *some* to substantives, are formed adjectives denoting *something*, or *in some degree*, as
trouble

trouble, *troublesome*; burden, *burdensome*. On the contrary, the termination *less*, added to substantives, makes adjectives signifying want, as *joyless*, *hopeless*, *careless*. The termination *ly* added to substantives; and sometimes to adjectives, forms adjectives that import some kind of similitude or agreement, as world, *worldly*; heaven, *heavenly*. And the same termination, *ly*, added to adjectives, forms adverbs of like signification; as, sweet, *sweetly*; soft, *softly*; beautiful, *beautifully*.

Our language has undergone considerable changes, and has received no small improvement from them. We have great numbers of words derived from the Latin, French and Greek.

When a noun substantive indicates an object considered as single, or alone, it is in the SINGULAR NUMBER, as *a tree*, *a table*, *a garland*. When it indicates several objects, it is of the PLURAL, as *trees*, *tables*, *garlands*.

The plurals of adjectives, though varied from the singulars in most languages, in English are generally the same.

Adjectives (some excepted) have three degrees of comparison, the positive, comparative, and superlative. Indeed the positive cannot be properly called a degree of comparison, because it does not compare things together; however, it is stiled one, because the other two are founded upon, and formed from it. The comparative degree is formed of the positive, by adding the syllable *er*, as soft, *softer*; wise, *wiser*; or it is distinguished by the word *more*; as softer, or *more* soft; wiser, or *more* wise. The superlative degree is formed of the positive, by adding the syllable *est*, as soft, *softest*; kind, *kindest*; or it is marked by the word *most*; as kindest, *most* kind, &c.

The English GENITIVE CASE is the second case of the declension of nouns; it is made by prefixing the particle *of*; in French *de*, or *du*. There are, strictly, only two cases in either the French or English languages. The English genitive ends in (*s*,) as "Dryden's Works," or "the Works of Dryden: "Milton's Poems," or "the Poems of Milton."

With respect to GENDER, our language, with singular propriety, following nature alone, applies the distinction of masculine and feminine only to the names of animals all the rest are neuter, except when things inanimate and qua-

lities are exhibited as persons, and consequently become either male or female. The difference of sex is expressed by different words; as, *man, woman; boy, girl; brother, sister; bull, cow; horse, mare; &c.* But when there are not two different words to express both sexes, or when both sexes are comprehended under one word, then we add another word to it to distinguish the sex; as *a male infant, a female infant, &c.* There are also several words which distinguish the female from the male sex, by the ending *ess*; as governor, *governess*; actor, *actress*; baron, *baroness*; heir, *heiress*; jew, *jewess*; prince, *princess*; duke, *duchess*; count, *countess, &c.*

With regard to the English ARTICLES, we have only two, *a*, and *the*; which, prefixed to substantives, apply their genuine signification to some particular things; as *a book*; that is, *some book or other*; *the man*; that is, *some certain man* spoken of before. Articles are of great service in a language, as they contribute to the more neat and precise expression of several properties and relations; which would otherwise be lost. They are adjectives, and are used almost in the same manner as other adjectives: *a* is written before a word beginning with a consonant; but when the substantive begins with a vowel, or *h*, if the *h* be not sounded, then we write *an* instead of *a*, as *an eye; an hour*; but *a hare, a hand, &c.* because the *h* is sounded: *a* is an article of number, and signifies as much as *one*, and is put for it; as *a man*; i. e. *one man*; *an hour*; i. e. *one hour*: *a* is the first letter of the alphabet in almost all the known languages in the world, and is the first of the dominical letters in our calendar. The article *the* is written before the singular and plural numbers; as *the man; the men, &c.* The article *a* is said to be indefinite, because applied to names taken in their more general signification; as, "he travelled with the splendour of *a* prince; where the words *a prince* may be understood of any prince in general. Or, *a* respects our primary perception, and denotes individuals as unknown. The article *the* is styled definite, or demonstrative, as fixing the sense of the word it is put before, to one individual thing. Or, *the* respects our secondary perception, and denotes individuals as known.

PRONOUNS. A Pronoun is a Part of Speech used instead of a noun, or name, as its substitute or representative. As
it

it would have been disagreeable to have been always repeating the same name, pronouns are introduced to save the necessity thereof, and to stand in the place of names; as, *I, thou, he, &c.* Instead of saying, "Thou, John, didst it," we say, "Thou didst it." Or, instead of saying, "He, Thomas, did it," we say, "He did it." All discourse is confined to three heads; for we either speak of ourselves; to another; or of another; and these three heads are called *persons*, there being three persons in discourse; that is, three heads comprehending the whole of our discourse. *I love*, is used in the first person, *Thou lovest*, in the second; *He loveth*, the third.

Pronouns are personal, demonstrative, relative, possessive, &c. The personal are, *I, thou, he, we, ye, they*; the demonstrative, *this, those, &c.* The relative, *who, that, &c.* The possessive, *mine, thine, his, &c.* To these four classes may be added pronouns indefinite, which express their subject indeterminately; as, *whoever, any, &c.* Pronouns are likewise divided into substantive and adjective: to the first belong, *I, thou, he*; to the second, *my, mine, who, what, &c.* There are also prepositive and subjunctive pronouns: the first are those which are capable of introducing or leading a sentence, without having reference to any thing previous, and are divided into three orders, called the first, second, and third person. The subjunctive are those which subjoin one sentence to some other which is previous, as *who, which, that, &c.* and may be distinguished from other pronouns, as they are not only substitutes, but also connectives: they include the powers of the three orders into which the prepositive are distinguished, having superadded the peculiar force of connective.

VERBS. These are the principal words of a sentence, and are of three kinds, viz. active, passive, and neuter. A verb active expresses an action, and necessarily implies an agent, and an object acted upon; as *to love; I love John.* A verb passive expresses a passion, or a suffering, or the receiving of an action; and necessarily implies an object acted upon, and an agent by which it is acted upon; as, *to be loved. John is loved by me.* A verb neuter signifies an action that has no particular object whereon to fall; but which, of itself, takes up the whole idea of the action. Or
a verb

a verb neuter expresses being, or a state or condition of being; when the agent and the object coincide; as, *I sleep, thou sleepest, he snores, we walk, you run, they stand*. Verbs neuter are thus called, because they are neither active nor passive, though they have the force and signification of both. The word *verb*, which betokens being, doing, or suffering, comes from the Latin *verbum*; for it is the chief word in a sentence, and there is no sentence wherein it is not either expressed or understood.

VERBS AUXILIARY are those which serve in conjugating active and passive verbs: such are, *I am, I have, &c.* Conjugation is the orderly distribution of the several parts or inflections of verbs; though, indeed, in our language, where the verbs have scarce any natural inflexions, but derive all their variations from additional particles, pronouns, &c. we have hardly any such thing as a strict conjugation.

VERBS IRREGULAR are those which have become so from the quickness of our pronunciation, whereby we change the consonant *d* into *t*, cutting off the regular ending *ed*. Thus, for *mixed*, we write *mixt*; *dwelled*, *dwelt*; *snatched*, *snatcht*, &c. But this indeed is rather of the nature of a contraction, than an irregularity, and is complained of by some of our polite writers as an abuse, to the disadvantage of our language, tending to disfigure it, and turn a considerable part of our smoothest words into clusters of consonants.

MOOD is a Term used to signify the different manners of conjugating Verbs, agreeably to the different actions or affections to be expressed; as *showing, commanding, wishing, &c.* Hence arise five moods, viz. the indicative, imperative, optative, subjunctive, and infinitive. The indicative shews either the time present, past, or future. *I love*, is the present tense; *I loved*, the past; and *I will love*, the future. The imperative mood serves to express a command, as *go, come, &c.* The optative expresses an ardent desire or wish for any thing; as, *Would to God!* &c. The subjunctive mood is thus called, because it is usually subjoined to some other verb, or at least to some other particle, as, "If I loved," "Though this were true," &c. And the infinitive expresses things indefinitely, as, "To teach, &c." It denotes not any precise time, nor determines the number or persons: thus, "To walk," means simply that energy, and nothing

thing more. Some grammarians admit of but four moods, confounding the optative with the subjunctive; and some make six, dividing the optative into potential and optative. The potential expresses, "I may or can love," &c.

TENSE. The Tenses are used to mark present, past, and future time. Tense (time) is an inflexion of verbs, whereby they are made to signify or distinguish the circumstance or time of the thing they affirm. We may affirm a thing *is*, or *was*, or *will be*: hence the necessity of inflexions to denote those several times, which English grammarians call tenses: most other languages call them simply times. There are but three simple tenses; the present, as, "I write" the preter, preterit, or past, as "I have written" and the future, as, "I will write." But, as in the present tense, one may either express a thing as just done or past, or indefinitely and barely that it was done; hence, in most languages, arise two kinds of preterits; the one definite, making the thing to be precisely done, as "I have written;" the other indefinite, denoting a thing done indeterminately, as "I wrote."

Besides the three simple tenses, others have been invented called compound tenses, expressing the relation of the simple ones to each other: the first expresses the relation of the past to the present, and is called the preterimperfect tense, because it does not mark the thing simply and properly as done, but as imperfect, and present with respect to another thing past; as, "I was at dinner when he entered." The second compound tense marks doubly the time past, and is therefore called the plusquamperfect tense, as, "I had dined." The third compound tense denotes the future with regard to the past, as "I shall have dined." Several tenses, or times, are denoted in Greek and Latin by particular inflexions; in the English, French, and other modern languages, the auxiliary verbs, *to be*, and *to have*, are called in.

PARTICIPLES are Adjectives formed of Verbs, and are so called as participating of some of the properties of verbs. They are of two kinds, active and passive; the active expresses the subject which makes the action of the verb, as *reading*, *bearing*; and the passive expresses the subject which receives the action of it, as *read*, *heard*.

ADVERBS. Most words ending in *ly* are adverbs. The term literally signifies a word joined to a verb, to shew how, when

when, or where, one is, does, or suffers; as, "the boy paints *neatly*;" "the house stands *there*." We also often find it joined to adjectives, and sometimes even to substantives, as, "he is *truly* king." It is likewise sometimes joined to another adverb, as "*very devoutly*." Adverbs, in our language, admit of no variation, except indeed some few, which have the degrees of comparison, as *soon, sooner, soonest*.

There are many kinds of adverbs; as, of time, viz. *to-day, to-morrow, yesterday, not yet, now*. Of place; as, *here, there, above, below, within, where*. Of number; as, *once, twice, thrice, seldom, rarely*. Of order, as, *lastly, last of all, secondly, thirdly*. Of quantity; as, *enough, sufficient*. Of affirming; as, *yea, yes*. Of denying; as, *nay, no, not*. Of doubting; as, *perhaps, peradventure*. Of comparing; as, *how, as, so, more, less, very*. Of quality; of which sort there is a great number ending in *ly*, as I have already observed.

CONJUNCTIONS express a Relation or Dependence between Words and Phrases, and are thus called, as serving to join or connect the parts or members of a discourse; as, *but, and, only, inasmuch as, for, because, &c.* Some conjunctions have their correspondent conjunctions belonging to them; so that, in the subsequent member of the sentence, the latter answers to the former; as *although; yet, or nevertheless; whether, or, either; or*: expressing a comparison of equality, "*as white as snow*."

Conjunctions and adverbs, as well as interjections, as not being declined or conjugated, are called particles, and which serve rather to express the circumstances and manners of other ideas and objects of the mind, than to represent any distinct objects of their own.

A judicious use of particles constitutes clearness and beauty in writing. A man, to express the dependence of his thoughts and reasonings one upon another, must have words to shew what connexion, restriction, distinction, emphasis, &c. he gives to each respective part of his discourse.

PREPOSITIONS are chiefly put before nouns and pronouns, to connect them with other words, and to shew their relation to those words. Such are, *to, on, by, for, &c.* *Of* is much the same with *from*: made *of* wood; *from* wood: son *of* Edmund; that is, sprung *from* Edmund.

INTERJECTIONS represent the Passions and Emotions of the Soul;

Soul ; as, *ah ! alas ! oh !*. They are a kind of natural sounds to express the affection of the speaker. The different passions have, for the most part, different interjections to express them ; as, that of grief, *ah ! alas !* of joy, as, *hey ! brave !* of attention, as, *hah ! bark !* &c. They are in most languages monosyllables, as the chief part of expression used with them proceeds from nature alone.

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX, which is the proper placing or joining of words together in sentences, is in our language confined to a few short and easy rules. A sentence is a thought expressed by two or more words, and is either simple or compound : a simple sentence is that which has only one verb finite in it ; as "God is just." By a verb finite is to be understood any verb not infinitively put, or that has not *to* put before it ; as *to* admire, *to* deceive, &c. A compounded sentence is, when two simple sentences are joined together ; as, "God is good, and man is wicked." Every sentence consists of a substantive and a verb, agreeing in number and person ; as, "The master teacheth ; children play." There can be nothing said in any sentence without a verb ; nor can there be any verb without a substantive or person ; as "The master teacheth ; boys should attend." A verb in a sentence denotes either the action or motion of the person, the agent or the thing moving ; as, "God said, let their be light, and there was light : " or, secondly, the passion of the substantive or person, the patient ; as, "Truants are despised ; diligence is praised : " or, thirdly, the existence or being of the substantive or person existing ; as, "I am ; men are." And seeing there can be no action without an agent, nor passion without a patient, nor existence without something existing, it is not consistent with a verb to be without a substantive or person.

Syntax

Syntax, or construction of words, may be divided into two kinds; viz. that which is natural and regular, and that which is customary or figurative. That may be stiled regular which is according to the natural sense and order of the words; and the customary or figurative is that which is used in the forms of speech peculiar to several languages.

The construction of our language is so easy, that grammarians have thought it scarce worth while to give a regular and systematic *Syntax*. All that is necessary, therefore, to say further of it, may be comprised in the following words of Dr. Johnson.

“The established practice of grammarians requires that I should treat of the Syntax; but our language has so little inflexion, or variety of terminations, that its construction neither requires nor admits many rules. The verb, as in other languages, agrees with the nominative in number and person, as “Thou fliest from good;” “He runs to death.” Our adjectives and pronouns are invariable. Of two substantives the noun possessive is the genitive; as, “His Father’s glory;” “The Sun’s heat.” Verbs transitive require an oblique case: “He gave this *to* me;” “He took this *from* me;” “He says this *of* me;” “He came *with* me.”

PROSODY

Teaches and directs the pronunciation, and manner of rehearsal; marks the accents, and distinguishes the long and short syllables. The English Prosody turns chiefly on numbers and rhyme; by numbers is meant a certain number of feet or syllables; by rhyme, a similitude of sound between the last syllables of words. When every letter has its proper sound, and every syllable its proper quantity, the pronunciation must be just. By quantity I mean the measure and magnitude of the syllables, or that which determines them to be called long or short; or it is the measure of time requisite for the distinct pronunciation of a syllable. This quantity

quantity is the object of Prosody ; and it is a proper regard to this which distinguishes verse from prose.

An ACCENT is a character placed over a syllable, to shew it is to be pronounced in a higher or lower tone, and to regulate the inflexions of the voice in reading. It is, in its primitive sense, an affection of the voice, which gives each syllable of the word its due pitch, with respect to height or lowness. Of disyllables, which are at once nouns and verbs, the verb has commonly the accent on the latter, and the noun on the former syllable ; as, to *descánt*, a *déscant* ; to *cémént*, a *cément* ; to *contráct*, a *cónttract*. This rule, however has exceptions. Though verbs seldom have their accent on the former, yet nouns often have it on the latter syllable ; as, *delíght*, *persúme*. Trisyllables ending in *y*, as *éntity*, *spécify*, *liberty*, *víctory*, *subsidy*, accent the first syllable ; as do those ending in *re* or *le*, as *légible*, *théatre* ; except *discíple*, and some words which have a position, as *exámple*, *épístle*. Trisyllables in *ude* commonly accent the first syllable, as *plénitude*. Polysyllables, or words of more than three syllables, ending in *ion*, have the accent upon the antepenult, (that is, the last syllable but two) as *salvátion*, *perturbátion*, *concórtion* ; and words ending in *atour* or *ator*, have it on the penult (or last syllable but one) as *dedicátor*.

PRONUNCIATION is the manner of articulating or sounding the words of a language, represented to the eye by orthography. As we pronounce before we write, and only write to express what we pronounce, the pronunciation must be considered as the rule and model of orthography.

EMPHASIS is a force, stress, or energy, in expression, action, &c. which performs the same office in sentences as the accent does in words. Such is the necessity of observing propriety of emphasis, that the true meaning of words cannot be conveyed without it. A proper use of it produces the noblest effects.

LETTERS

ON

DIFFERENT SUBJECTS.

BY way of introduction to the LETTERS, I shall just remark, that, with respect to LETTER WRITING, by which a considerable part of the commerce of human life is carried on, it is certainly a very necessary as well as liberal accomplishment. The pen and the tongue are both interpreters of the mind; but the pen is the most faithful, as having the advantage of premeditation, and is therefore not so apt to err. As the matter of a letter is the same as that of conversation, it should not differ in the mode of expression. The most plain and easy way of conveying our sentiments is the best, as being the most natural; subjects of letters, however, being various, they require variety in expression. If the subject be weighty and important, the language ought to be strong and nervous; in things of a less weighty nature it should be free and easy; in consolations it should be kind and obliging; in narratives, clear and distinct; in requests, modest; in exhortations, vigorous; in condolance, tender and sympathetic. It should, in short, be accommodated to the particular nature of the subject upon which the letter is written.

LET-

LETTER I.

Mrs. V — to her Son, on his going to the University.

MY DEAR SON,

YOU are now entering on a situation the more hazardous, because you are insensible of its dangers. I feel an exultation of heart on the reflexion that you have hitherto persevered in the practice of the duties of life: but, remember that you have yet been unassailed by temptations, and never been removed from the eye of a tender parent. The duties which have preserved to you an happy serenity of mind, will afford perhaps to your gay companions a subject on which they may display their talents for ridicule. I tremble when I consider that you may be assaulted by the destructive arguments of sophistry, exposed to the fallacious allurements of pleasure, and invited to plunge into the gulph of sensuality.

O, my child! do not forget, in the midst of a gay, licentious world, that you have obligations which no human power can ever cancel, and duties to fulfil from which you can never be disengaged.

Your temper is lively, yet tender; you are naturally friendly and unsuspecting: beware lest you be seduced to a misapplication of intended blessings. Never suffer your gaiety to betray you into licentiousness, nor the tenderness of your heart to deviate into a neglect of true honour. Vice and imprudence are no *necessary* attendants on youth, though too frequently its inseparable companions. If you are assaulted by the ridicule of your gay acquaintances for persisting in any laudable custom, despise *their* contempt, and be only fearful of incurring *your own*. If you would be secure from the arrows of calumny, be careful never to part with the shield of innocence. Remember you have a tender mother, who is anxiously solicitous for your improvement in goodness, and whose happiness is dependent on the conduct of her children. Remember you have a sister to whom you are infinitely dear; and that *your honour* ought to be as pure and unblemished as *her*

virtue. But, above all, remember that there is an Omniscent Being, to whom you will be accountable for every deviation, whose displeasure consigns you to the everlasting punishments of guilt, or whose approbation crowns you with the eternal rewards of obedience.

Should you be betrayed into any action you condemn, endeavour rather to atone for the fault, than palliate or disguise it. The regard I wish you should always feel for me, is incompatible with dissimulation. I am no judge whose severity would awe you into silence, but a friend and a parent, in whom you may repose an unreserved confidence.

I hope you will pursue the manner of reading I have always recommended. Never forget, what I have often repeated to you, that slow reading is the quickest way to knowledge. A frequent perusal of a few well chosen books will tend more to the improvement of your understanding than a multifarious reading of all the superficial writers who have attempted to acquire literary fame.

I am not apprehensive that you will think my advice arises from any other motive than a desire of promoting your present and future happiness. Be assured, my dear son, no heart can glow with more maternal fondness than that of

Your ever affectionate Mother,

S. V—.

LETTER II.

A Shopkeeper on Ludgate-Hill, to another Shopkeeper in the Borough.

Per Penny Post.

FRIEND M***,

SUCH is the generosity of your disposition, that I know I am under no necessity of apologizing for omitting payment

ment of the Twenty Pounds on Tuesday, as promised. To-morrow I shall send you the cash, half in notes, and half in dollars. I am sure you must admire *dollars*, from the comfortable union of the *British George* with the *Spanish Charles*; for the former is enveloped so deep in the neck of the latter, as to be *inseparably* united to him; and care has been taken to prevent a dissolution of their union in the melting-pots of refiners.

Their Majesties' personal influence is such, as to captivate all hearts, engage all affections, and effectuate all purposes. Continually changing situations, though *immutable* in themselves, they occupy chests, trunks, bags, boxes, purses, &c.

We read of leagues and treaties, and triple alliances, and quadruple alliances, and grand alliances; but the alliance of *George* and *Charles* is a firm *Mineral Alliance*, of the richest and most precious nature, and is preserved as rigidly in the pocket of a chimney-sweeper, as in that of a Peer: and their Majesties, paying no regard to opinions or distinctions, *chink* in republican pockets as soundly as in aristocratic: an harmony resulting politically (we will say) from an idea of *Counterfeit Kings*; for there are counterfeits in all ranks and spheres of life,—in *Kings* as well as in *Subjects*: a truism well known to the *Israelites* of Duke's Place.

I am your's, &c.

LETTER III.

A London Trader to a Country Shop-keeper.

FRIEND BLUNT,

YOU and I formerly traded together; and it will no be my fault if we do not trade together again. As the times alter, so fashions alter. I have a nice assortment of

Spencers, Pantaloon, and Overalls, which you shall have reasonably, as ready-made articles; and as London fashions are generally adopted in the country, I have no doubt but you will soon dispose of them.

As I omit no opportunity of getting an honest penny, I peeped into a sale the other day, and bought some muslins: they would be a pretty temptation for the farmers daughters who come to your market. You shall have them cheap, and I will warrant them good.

I am your humble Servant,

Daniel Downright.

LETTER IV.

A Boy under private Tuition, to his Father.

HONOURED SIR,

I Consider myself much obliged to you for the many favours I have received: I hope that the progress I make in my studies will be an agreeable return for them. Gratitude, affection, and a view of the advantages which will arise from my education, all unite to make me sensible how much I ought to endeavour to shew myself, upon every occasion,

Your most dutiful

And obedient Son,

John Allen.

LET-

LETTER V.

To CLEORA.

THOUGH it is but a little time since we parted from each other, yet I have already taken up my pen to write to you. You must not expect, however, in this, or in any of my future letters, that I shall say fine things to you, since I only intend to tell you true ones. My heart is too full to be regular, and too sincere to be ceremonious. I have changed the manner, not the style, of my former conversations; and I write to you, as I used to talk to you, without form or art. Tell me then, with the same undissembled sincerity, what effect this absence has upon your usual chearfulness? For I will honestly confess, on my own part, that I am too interested to wish a circumstance, so little consistent with my own repose, should be altogether reconcileable to your's. I have attempted, however, to pursue your advice, and divert myself by the subject you recommend to my thoughts; but it is impossible, I perceive, to turn off the mind at once from an object which it has long dwelt upon with pleasure. My heart, like a poor bird which is hunted from her nest, is still returning to the place of its affections, and after some vain efforts to fly off, settles again where all its cares and all its tenderness are centered. Adieu.

LETTER VI.

A London Bookseller to a Country Hatter.

SIR,

THIS is the third time of my writing to you. I must once more desire that we may settle accounts. You have had a considerable supply of books for your family; and though the hats which I have had of you for my own family

mily are by no means equal in number or value to the books, still as an honest man you should not object to a balance of accounts, if it were only on the consideration of the difference between our trades, and the advantage which hat-making has over bookselling: for the making of hats is not so precarious as the selling of books; because there must be a *hat* for every *head*, though there is not a *head* for every *book*.

I am your's,

T. L.

LETTER VII.

A Country Shop-keeper to a London Warehouseman.

SIR,

I Inclose you seven patterns of different articles, as under marked, 1 to 7. If you send me forty pieces of camblet, of the same quality with the thirty pieces ditto No. A.B. which I have had already from you, I will take them at the same price which I gave you for the first; and a month after delivery you may draw upon me for the cash, which shall be paid by

Your humble Servant,

D. M.

LETTER VIII.

To LAURA in Retirement.

IT is certainly better for yourself, and more for the security of mankind, that you should live in some rural abode, than

than appear in the world. Such persons as you are fatal to the public tranquillity, and do mischief without designing it. But I must own, when belles and beaux retire to country shades for the sake of heavenly contemplation, the world will be well reformed. The life of an Anchorite might be tolerable, while the serious hours are divided between Hyde Park and the Opera; but a more distant retreat, in the full pride of your charms and youth, appears rather extraordinary; and yet perhaps your good sense prefers such a retreat.

I must own such a retirement as disengages the mind from those interests and passions which mankind generally pursue, appears to me the most certain way to happiness. Quietly to withdraw from the crowd, and leave the gay and ambitious to divide the pleasures of the world, must produce a perfect and unenvied repose.

Remote from crowds, and from the noise and hurry of temporal pursuits, the Philosopher seeks some calm retreat, some thought-creating grove; and there, divested of all impure ideas, lulls the rough passions to rest. He views the immense cabinet of curiosities of the Eternal Creator, and felicitates himself on being admitted to an enjoyment of the divine perfection: he receives warmth from the remotest sun, and penetrates the very entrails of its revolving attendants. The gates of Heaven fly open, and discover to him the inconceivably glorious radiance of Divine Majesty: he pervades every pore of created substance, and comprehends a series of causes and effects by intuition; his soul expands like an ethereal blaze, and eternal love unites it with heavenly spirits. In solitude, the sacred flame of devotion burns brighter, unagitated by the contaminating breath of evil spirits. Here the good man reflects with gratitude on the many favours showered down upon him from Heaven, which with animating hope he fixes his eye upon as his proper country, where there is fulness of joy for evermore. He finds his virtue rewarded even in this world, by his consciousness of rectitude of conduct and integrity of morals; his mind is filled with complacency, his resolutions are strengthened, and his prospects enlarged. The voice of reason, which was lost amidst the vociferations of discord and riot, is heard whispering in retirement. Here virtue, piety, contemplation, and knowledge, fix their abode, and live together in perfect peace. Adieu.

LETTER IX.

A young Shop-keeper in the Country, to his Correspondent in London

SIR,

BEING just set up in Business, I wish you to supply me with such goods as I at present want. I have sent you an order as underwritten, and hope each article will be of good quality, which will be an inducement for a further connexion. I have inclosed a Bill of Exchange for Seventy Pounds on Messrs. Clarke, Peters, and Co. payable to yourself or order, at twenty days sight: you will be so kind as to get it accepted; and if the goods should amount to more than that sum, I shall, on receipt of your bill of parcels, send you the remainder. I desire I may have the goods well sorted, and as cheap as possible.

I am,

Your most humble Servant,

B. Green.

LETTER X.

A Tradesman at Hull to his Correspondent in Southwark.

SIR,

I RECEIVED your's, and have only just to observe in reply, that I think I shall agree to what you propose. Last post you had bills of lading with an invoice of what had been laden on your account in the ship Mary, bound for Ham-
burgh. I inclosed two bills of exchange. Pray let me know if they have been received and accepted, and credit given in account current to

Your humble servant,

A. Cole.

LETTER XII.

LETTER XI.

QUINTIUS to LAVINIA.

London.

TO the humane and contemplative mind, the liberal and sentimental heart, the feeling, pitying, compassionate breast, there is nothing more afflicting or shocking than the appearance of loathed *vice* and *infamy* in the fairest and (without those deformities) the most pleasing part of creation.

The daily-increasing number of *women of pleasure*, as they are generally stiled, who infest this metropolis, is, I think, as great a public grievance as any extant.

Though it be not in the power of the Legislature to suppress entirely so offensive a nuisance, yet it might be so far checked as at least to obviate a public insult to Heaven in the meridian day-light.

The youth and beauty of some of these criminals, their lewdness and infamy, the contempt of which they are the objects, and the ill-treatment to which they are subject, must attract the commiseration of every one who is not wholly unimpressed with the feelings of humanity.

The misery and wretchedness, which these *women of pleasure* labour under, no tongue can truly express, no mind can conceive, no pencil can delineate.

A *reforming constable* will look upon them without the least emotion of pity, and, if they are money-less, will drag them, only for being so, to a prison.

The brutal cruelty which these poor girls receive from the hands of *bucks*, *bloods*, *constables*, and *watchmen*, entitles them certainly to the appellation of *women of pleasure*!

The misfortunes of the vicious and abandoned, male or female, originate too frequently from the want of a proper education in their earlier life, and the misconception of their parents. For we often find the natural good temper of a child destroyed by an absurd-compliance with its repeated different inclinations for different objects, gratifications, or pursuits; and there is nothing so detrimental, nothing so fatally pernicious to children, as giving them too great indulgence.

What

What we call "*humouring* of children," we may call *ruining* of children; for this mistaken fondness is too generally productive of the most unhappy effects. In proportion as a child is too much indulged, its attachment and regard to the parent gradually decrease, as the child gradually rises to maturity; for a continuance of this mistaken indulgence insinuates into its tender mind not a *natural* but *interested* affection.

But I hope, my Lavinia, you do not conclude from what I have here said, that I would encourage parents to use severity to their children; for this would occasion equally bad effects; but there is a prudential, an happy *medium* to be observed in the bringing them up. However, as I do not mean to write you a treatise upon education, I shall only just observe, that I think it possible for a child to both *love* and *fear* its parents at the same moment, without receiving either any improper indulgencies or severities.

I am, &c.

LETTER XII.

A Tradesman to his Correspondent.

SIR,

A Very unexpected demand that has been made upon me for money, which I was in hopes of keeping longer in my trade, obliges me to apply for your assistance of the balance of the account between us, or as much of it as you can spare.

When I have an opportunity to inform you of the nature of this demand, and the necessity of my discharging it, you will readily excuse the freedom I now take with you: and as it is an affair of such consequence to my family, I know the friendship you bear me will induce you to serve me.

I am, your humble Servant,

John Gibson.

LETTER

LETTER XIII.

The Answer.

SIR,

IT gives me much satisfaction that I have it in my power to answer your demand, and am able to serve a man I so much esteem. The balance of the account is forty-two pounds, for which I have procured bank-notes, and shall send them by the next mail,

I am, SIR,

Your obedient humble Servant,

Charles Davis.

LETTER XIV.

VALERIUS to AMANDA:

WE often discover, in the great theatre of the world, certain singular objects of the human species whose originality attracts forcibly our attention; and we frequently meet with such in history: Democritus, we find, was continually laughing at the follies of the world: Bias and Anaxagoras were remarkable for their carelessness; and Diogenes dwelt in a tub.

Soon after my arrival in London, a remarkable little old man, who used to pass frequently under my window, engaged my particular notice; he had always a cheerful countenance, and had the appearance of a reduced gentleman: and one day, dressed in a shabby suit of black, he stooped to speak to a friend of mine who was coming to pay me a morning visit.

Curiosity, you may be sure, now induced me to make some enquiry about him. I found that he was both a gentleman and a scholar; that he had formerly lived in great affluence,

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when

when distress'd merit never approached his door without a certainty of relief; but that a series of misfortunes had reduced him to a state of poverty: 'And yet (added my friend) so submissive is he to the Divine Will, so easy, so calm, and contented, that even a monk might envy him!'

I was so pleased with the greatness of the character, that I wrote to him, and received the following reply:

'KIND SIR,

"I AM much obliged to you for your genteel and generous epistle. There was a time when I stood in no necessity of receiving favours; but that time is no more. Providence, however, is my friend; and I feel myself more happy in poverty than I ever was, even in the midst of my affluence. Troubles, inquietudes, and disappointments, I have exchanged for retirement, contemplation, and philosophy. It is now my fate to live in an humble garret; but a clear conscience in a garret is superior to a guilty one in a palace. Rich in contentment, I am wealthier than even Eastern princes; and imagination, pluming her wings, illustrates my opulence. Sometimes I fancy my garret a sacred relic of one of the famous temples of antiquity: three old chairs which stand in it, are the three Graces which stood behind the statue of Minerva: my walls are adorned with the richest tapestry; my cieling is a beautiful canopy, and my flooring of the purest clarion marble; the bed on which I rest myself is embellished with pearls and jewels, and the cobwebs that hang about it are votive tablets; a dozen or two of old books are my Bibliotheca Palatina; four favourite pictures are the four vestal virgins; and an old clock-case, that was my grandmother's, is the Palladium which was stolen from Troy. —True happiness, Sir, is dependent wholly on the disposition; flowing from the pure spring of virtuous contentment.

'I am your most obliged

'and obedient Servant.'

I have since been twice in company with the above philosopher; he is extremely entertaining in conversation, and
subsists

subsists entirely by the humane contributions of a few friends. I have entered myself in the list of his contributors, and now recommend him to Amanda's bounty.

I remain, &c.

LETTER XV.

An Elder Brother to a Younger.

DEAR BROTHER,

AS you are now gone from home, and are arrived at years of some discretion, I think it necessary to put you in mind, that our childish affairs ought now to be entirely laid aside, and instead of them, more serious thoughts, and things of greater consequence, should take place; whereby we may add to the reputation of our family, and gain to ourselves the good esteem of being virtuous and diligent in life, which is of great value, and ought to be studied beyond any trifling amusements whatever; for it will be an ornament in youth, and a comfort in old age.

You possess too much good-nature and good-sense to be offended at my advice, especially when I assure you, that I as sincerely wish your happiness and advancement in life as I do my own.

Pray write as often as opportunity and leisure will permit, and be assured that a letter from you will always give great pleasure to your friends here, but to none more than

Your affectionate Brother,

Southampton.

T. Clarke.

LETTER XVI.

A Mother to her Daughter.

MY DEAR SUSAN,

BE assured that perfection and happiness are inseparable ; that you can never be happy but by virtue, and scarce ever unhappy but by ill conduct. Anxiety always follows the loss of innocence ; but virtue is ever attended with an inward satisfaction that is a constant spring of felicity to all its votaries. I am sure you do not, like some young women, think, that by practising this virtue, you discharge all the duties of society, and have a right to neglect the rest : no, my dear, you think rather that it is a virtue which regards only yourself, and loses its greatest lustre if it be not attended with the other virtues. Chastity has ever been esteemed so inseparably necessary to the female character, that every civilized people in the world have guarded it with the utmost care.

Your own sentiments, my dear, upon this subject, given in your last well-written and elegant letter, are highly pleasing to

Your affectionate Mother,

E. N.

LETTER XVII.

J. J. ROUSSEAU to M. D.

MY DEAR FRIEND,

HOW deceitful are men ! how false, how perfidious ! Nourished with malice from their infancy ; their greatest pleasure consists in ridiculing and persecuting virtue, and in insulting the virtuous. Virtue ! amiable virtue ! such surely ought not to be thy lot. Happy times ! when men, inhabiting the woods, fed on the acorns, which bountiful nature produced in abundance without culture. From the moment
they

they began to build cities, and to unite in society, vices, the basest and most infamous, have taken up their abode among them. Sincerity, integrity, honesty, are banished for ever from the earth: Perjury, deceit, hypocrisy, and all the other vices, have established themselves, as it were, upon a throne, and receive the incense of mortals. Monstrous divinities! adored by monsters; I despise your altars, and the incense of your foolish adorers. Honesty, integrity, sincerity, shall always be my Gods upon earth: To them I will sacrifice; and if I be an idolater, I glory in my idolatry.

Thus, my dear friend, into your bosom do I pour out my heart. You are not my enemy; your heart is too tender. Pity, the first of all the social virtues, tender pity, is natural to you: You can compassionate an unhappy man, who hath fallen a victim to the knavery of the wicked: They have leagued against me; they have attacked me with more than common fury. Every one hath shot his bolt at me. The first flash appeared in the heart of my ungrateful country; the thunder burst in France; the lightning reached as far as England. What has been the consequence of all this combustion? a smoke which my patience hath dissipated. The three-fold brags of Horace hath defended me against all the strokes, which must otherwise have overwhelmed me. The struggle has cost me some sighs in secret; but my heart was never dejected. Let malice once more break loose against me with unbridled fury; let her discharge upon me her keenest and most envenomed arrows; I shall only be the more impregnable. Weak efforts of a malice still more weak; they will strike against a rock, and rebound upon the heads of their authors.

I enjoy myself, and I despise the rest of mankind. Lodged in a narrow corner of this vast heap of dust and dirt, I quietly taste the fruits of my philosophy in the midst of a hurricane of inconstancy and deceit. Here I wait death with indifference; and I enjoy life with the same indifference. Nor is there any person upon earth but yourself, to whom my heart retains the least degree of tenderness. Adieu, Sir: accept my most humble respects.

J. J. Rousseau.

LETTER XVIII.

A Daughter to her Mother.

DEAR MOTHER,

THE weather is piercing cold, and Betty and I are bed-fellows; and she, and Robin, and Thomas, are all so kind to me, that I can scarce say which is the kindest. My mistress is a mighty good-natured gentlewoman; but my master is rather peevish: they are very rich, and have a large house in London, but are very seldom there, which I am very glad of, because I have heard so much of the wickedness of that place, that I have no wish to go there.

My mistress takes great notice of me, and talks to me very kindly. She says I am a very pretty girl, but that my beauty is of no worth without goodness. She takes me to church with her; and we have private prayers in the family every night.

As to my fellow servants, they are very kind and obliging. It is thought that Betty, who is as merry as the day is long, is to be married to Robin. Our coachman, Thomas, is a good-natured soul: one can see by his eyes, that it does his heart good whenever he can do a kind thing for any body.

Thus happily situated is,

Your affectionate Daughter,

Ann Sutton.

LETTER XIX.

The Mother's Answer.

MY DEAR CHILD,

I AM happy to hear you are so comfortably situated, and particularly that you have so good a mistress, to whose kind advice I beg you to pay great attention. She is perfectly right in her observation that beauty is of no worth without goodness.

Do you remember the gentleman that was at our house last summer, and his presenting you with a beautiful flower?

I think

I think it was either a pink or a rose. Do you recollect his remarking upon its beauty, and how soon it would fade? I know not whether you understood him or not; but I could plainly see that he meant it as a lesson for you. Now a year is to beauty; what a day was to that flower: who therefore would value themselves much on the possession of a thing which they are sure to lose in so short a time?

You have not yet been acquainted long enough with your fellow servants to know their hearts; but I hope they may be as good as you suppose them. With regard to the coachman, be a little upon the reserve; I flatter myself you have good sense enough to understand me. Though you are a servant yourself, you may, by prudence, be one day as great, rich and respectable as the mistress whom you have the honour to serve. Virtue, added to your beauty, may recommend you to the esteem of some wealthy and honourable man. A fine woman, like other fine things in nature, has her proper point of view, from which she may be seen to most advantage. To fix this point, requires judgment; and that judgment I hope to see ever governing the mind of my dear and amiable child.

I am your affectionate mother,

Mary Sutton.

LETTER XX.

An Apprentice to his Friends.

HONOURED FATHER AND MOTHER,

IT is with pleasure I inform you that by your good care I am well settled, and cannot but in duty return you my hearty thanks, in grateful acknowledgment of your affection for me. I will endeavour to go through my business chearfully; and having begun well, I hope I shall persevere to do so to the end; that I may be a comfort to you hereafter, and in some measure make a return for your love and kindness to

Your dutiful and obedient Son.

LETTER XXI.

LETTER XXI.

An Aunt to her Niece.

MY DEAR NIECE.

I Received your agreeable letter ; in which you speak much of the finery of the ladies you was in company with ; and you observe that your own dress was the plainest of any. I am very glad to hear it. Always, my dear, let the chief part of your finery be modesty ; it has great advantages ; it is the supplement of beauty. When a girl ceases to be chaste, she loses the most powerful charm of nature. Every species of indelicacy in conversation is disgusting to women of sense and virtue.

The dissoluteness of some mens' dispositions is pleased with a kind of wit called *double entendre* ; and yet with this same wit they are disgusted, when it proceeds from the lips of women, or when women seem to hear it without pain and contempt. Virgin purity is of that delicate nature, that it cannot hear certain things without contamination. No man, but a brute, or a fool, will insult a woman with conversation which he perceives to give her pain ; nor indeed will he dare to do it, if she resents the injury with a becoming spirit. There is a dignity in conscious virtue which is able to awe the most shameless and abandoned of men. This dignity, I flatter myself, is possessed amply by her who receives in these lines the tender wishes and blessing of

Her affectionate Aunt.

LETTER XXII.

To Miss NANCY SPARKS.

MY DEAR MISS NANCY,

I THINK it necessary to inform you that you must either pull out your eyes, or I must pull out mine ; either you must

must not be beautiful, or I must be blind. Yet though my passion is as violent perhaps as any man's, you must not expect that I shall either hang or drown. I should betray great want of sense, and little knowledge of your merit, to be willing to leave the world while you are in it. To deal sincerely with you, I choose the happiness of living with you, before the glory of dying for you: besides, I have that good opinion of your sense, to believe you prefer the living lover to the dead one; the lips that are warm, to the lips that are cold. If I must die, pray kill me with kindness, not with cruelty: let me rather expire on your bosom, than at your feet. If you are tenderly disposed to give me a death of this kind, I am prepared to meet it any where.

Adieu.

LETTER XXIII.

To Miss PEGGY MILLER.

DEAR PEGGY.

I AM just returned from a visit to Mr. and Mrs. ———, who have been lately married. They married rather for prudent reasons: one had no fortune; the other had no beauty. The man likes his wife well enough, but has no ardor; he looks at her with the pride of a man in possession of an expensive piece of furniture, which he takes a pleasure in calling his, and yet makes it subservient to no real purposes either of utility or enjoyment: and she appears a perfect icicle, cold, uninteresting, unloving.

A few mornings since, at breakfast "Lord," says she, "this is odd-tasted tea." "Do you think so?" said he "perhaps your mouth is out of taste." "It is quite musty," added she. "You mean it is *musky*," quoth he, "for it is a perfume as to smell." "It stinks," said she. "It is as sweet as a nut," cried he. "Don't provoke me," said the wife. "Don't put me in a passion," cried the husband. "Do you threaten, sir," said she; "take *that* for your pains," (tossing the tea-cup in

in his face.) "Here's tit for tat," said he, (throwing the cream-pot at her head.) "I can be as spiteful as *you*," says she, (and slap goes a faucer) "We'll see that," cried he. (and down goes the table.) And they would have actually proceeded to blows, had not I interfered. I was only with them four days, and was very glad to get away.

I am your's sincerely,

Sarah Price.

LETTER XXIV.

CLAUDIUS to PAULINA.

YOU ask me, in what consists happiness? I answer, that we judge of happiness too much by appearance; we suppose it to be where it is seldom found; we seek it even where it cannot be. To search for it, without knowing in what it consists, is to expose ourselves. In the uneasiness which the desire of being happy keeps us, we choose rather to deceive ourselves in pursuing it, than to remain in inaction; and having departed from the place in which we might taste it, we know not how to return more to it.

The source of happiness is not entirely either in the object desired, or in the heart which possesses it, but in the connection between one and the other: and as all objects are not proper to produce felicity, so all states of the heart are not proper to feel it.

The most noble object we can propose to ourselves, is to endeavour to govern ourselves; to accustom our passions to obedience, and reduce our desires to rule. If happiness be really possessed by the wise, it is because they are the persons from whom fortune can take the least.

An Italian ecclesiastic struggled through a series of troubles, without ever repining. A friend of his begged he would communicate to him the secret of being so *easy* under difficulties. "The secret consists," said the former, "in making a right use of my eyes." The other desired an explanation.

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"In whatever state I am," said the ecclesiastic, "I first look up to Heaven, and consider that my principal business here, is to get there: I then look down upon the earth, and call to mind how small a space I shall occupy in it when I am interred: and I then look abroad in the world, and observe what multitudes there are who are more unhappy than myself."

I need say no more, my Paulina, upon the subject, since penetration is your science; and, ingenuity in turning it to advantage, your talent.

I am, &c.

LETTER XXV.

ANACHARSIS to MISELLUS.

Worcestershire.

I AM now in the county in which I was born; and I naturally prefer a residence in my native fields, to all others; not because they are more beautiful, but because I was there brought up. The spot on which we pass our earliest days possesses a secret charm, an inexpressible enchantment, superior to any other enjoyment the world affords, and the loss of which no other country can compensate; the spot where the gambols of my infant days were played; those happy days which passed without inquietude or cares. The finding of a bird's nest then filled my bosom with the highest joy. What delight have I felt from the caresses of a partridge, in making it peck at me, in feeling its little heart beat against my hand! Happy he who returns to the place of his first attachment! that place where he fondly fixed his love on all around him; where every object appeared amiable to his eyes; the fertile fields in which he used to run and exercise himself; the orchard which he used to pillage.

These delightful sentiments engrave indelibly on our hearts the remembrance of our infancy, of those happy times which we passed with so much pleasure in the charming solitudes of our native country. Every

Every adversity of life is much more easily overcome in solitude than in the world; provided the soul will nobly bend its flight towards a different object. When a man thinks that he has no resources but in despair or death, he deceives himself; for despair is no resource. Let him retire to his study, and there seriously trace out the consequences of some settled truth, and his tears will no longer fall, the weight of his misfortunes will grow light, and the pangs of sorrow fly from his breast.

The calm of rural life inspires a soft and tranquil disposition, which, while it renders the noisy pleasures of the world insipid, enables us to taste the charms of retirement with increased delight.

The heart feels no *repose* in the highest happiness on earth, except in solitude: but this term must not be construed into indolence and sloth. The transition from pain to pleasure, from the restraints of business to the freedom of philosophy, is true repose. Leisure is not a state of mental torpidity, but of thought and action; when one employment is immediately succeeded by another; for in solitude it is the heart that finds repose in the exercise of the mind.

He who seeks for a situation exempt from all inquietude, follows a chimera. To enjoy life, repose must be sought not as an end, but only as a means of restoring lost activity. Such employments therefore as are best suited to the extent and nature of the capacity must be preferred, and not those which promise compensation without labour, and enjoyment without pain.

To this end it is necessary to cultivate a fondness for activity, and to force exertion until the desire of employment becomes habitual. A regular employment is, in my opinion, the surest and most efficacious antidote to that lassitude, acerbity, and dejection, which wounded spirits and nervous affections are apt to produce.

There is no person who may not, by quietly traversing the fields with his gun, and without running after poetic images, learn to feel how much the great scene of nature will affect the heart, especially when assisted by the powers of imagination. The sight of an agreeable landscape, the various points of view which spacious plains afford, the freshness of the zephyrs, the beauty of the sky, and the appetite which
a long

a long chace procures, will give feelings of health, and make every step seem too short. The privation of every object that can recal the idea of dependence, accompanied by domestic comfort, healthful exercise, and useful occupations, will add vigour to thought, give warmth to imagination, present the most agreeable and smiling images to the mind, and inebriate the heart with delicious sensations. A man with a fine imagination would be more happy in a dark prison, than, without imagination, amidst the most magnificent scenery. But even to a mind deprived of this happy faculty, the rich harvest of rural life will alone perform miracles upon the heart.

To acquire durable pleasures and true felicity, it is necessary to look with an eye of pity on such as are agitating their minds and tormenting their hearts in splendid miseries and childish conversations. Those who have no knowledge of their own hearts, who have no habits of reflection, who have not persevered in virtue, nor are able to listen to the voice of reason, have nothing to hope from solitude: their joys are all annihilated, when the blood has lost its warmth and the senses their force; the most trifling inconvenience, the least reverse of fortune fills them with the deepest distress; their hearts beat to the terrors of an alarmed imagination, and their minds fall under the tortures of unwarranted despair.

The rich proprietary loves to amuse himself in a contemplation of his wealth, the voluptuary in his entertainments, the man of the world with his friends and assemblies; but the truly good man finds his pleasure in the scrupulous discharge of the august duties of life. He sees a new sun shining before him; thinks himself surrounded by a more pure and lively splendour; every object is embellished, and he gaily pursues his career.

Liberty, leisure, a quiet conscience, and a retirement from the world, are the surest and most infallible means to arrive at virtue. Under such circumstances, it is not necessary to restrain the passions merely to prevent them from disturbing the public order, or to abate the fervour of imagination; for in our review of things we willingly leave them as they are, because we have learned to laugh at their absurdity. Domestic life is no longer, as in the gay world, a scene of langour and disgust; the field of battle to every base and

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brutal

brutal passion: the dwelling of envy, vexation, and ill-humour. Peace and happiness inhabit those bosoms that renounce the poisonous springs of pleasure; and the mind is thereby rendered capable of communicating its purest joys to all around. He who shuns the contaminated circles of the vicious; who flies from the insolent looks of proud stupidity, and the arrogance of successful villainy; who beholds the void which all the idle entertainments and vain pretensions of public life leave within the breast, is never discontented or disturbed at home.

There is not a villain in existence whose mind does not silently acknowledge that virtue is the corner-stone of all felicity in the world, as well as in solitude. Vice however, is continually spreading her silken nets to ensnare multitudes of every rank and every station. To watch all the seductive inclinations of the heart, not only when they are present, but while they yet lie dormant in the breast, to vanquish every desire by employing the mind in the pursuit of nobler pleasures, has ever been considered the greatest conquest which the soul is capable of gaining over the world and itself; and inward peace has ever been the price of this victory.

Happy is the man who carries with him into retirement this inward peace of mind, and there preserves it unaltered. Of what service would it be to leave the town, and seek the calmness and tranquility of retirement, if misanthropy still lurks within the heart, and there continue our sacrifices to this fatal passion? Divine contentment, a calm and open countenance, will, under such circumstances, be as seldom found in the flower-enamelled meadows, as in the deepest night of solitude, or in the silent shades of obscure cells. To purify and protect the heart, is the first and last duty which we have to perform in retirement: this task once accomplished, our happiness is secure; for we have then learned the value of the tranquility, the leisure, and the liberty we enjoy.

To a man disposed to activity, the only qualities, for which there can be any occasion in solitude, are liberty and leisure. The instant he finds himself alone, all the faculties of his soul are set in motion. Give him liberty and leisure, and he will soar incomparably higher than if he had continued to drag on a slavish and oppressed life.

The

The influence of the mind upon the body is a truth highly useful and consolatory to those who are subject to constitutional complaints. Supported by this idea, reason is never entirely subdued; religion maintains its empire in the breast; and the lamentable truth, that men of the finest sensibilities and most cultivated understandings frequently possess less fortitude under afflictions than the most vulgar of mankind, remains unknown.

Enlightened minds who are capable of correctly distinguishing beauties from defects, whose bosoms feel pleasure from the works of genius, and pain from dulness and depravity, resign themselves to a tranquil intercourse with the illustrious sages of antiquity, and with those writers who have distinguished and adorned the middle ages or the present time.

In such a society we discover the powers of contributing to the perfection of our nature, and experience the most agreeable sensations of existence: we congratulate ourselves on the possession of mental powers; and feel, that with such characters we exert our faculties not only to the advantage of ourselves, to the pleasure of our friends, but perhaps also to the happiness of congenial minds to whom we are yet unknown; for, in every age, the pen of truth will please the eye of genius and the heart of virtue.

If the misfortunes of those we love have rendered us unhappy; if a sympathising tenderness destroys all pleasure, and deprives us even of ability to practise the virtues which we feel; if we have long but vainly struggled to deliver the heart from these cruel sufferings, solitude is the only refuge. But oh! may the Beauty who accompanies our retreat be an angel of virtue, and in our descent to the vale of death conduct and support us by her wisdom in a noble and sublime tranquility. Adieu.

LETTER XXVI.

I——— H———, Esq. to the Right Hon. Lord———, at
Florence.

MY LORD,

SUCH is my regard for your Lordship, that it follows you as far as Florence, and would go much farther if necessary;

it would ascend even the Alps or Apennines after you. I am sorry I had not the happiness to meet you in Holland or Brabant, for we went the very same road, and I lay in Dort and Antwerp, in the same lodgings you had lain in a fortnight before. I presume you have by this time wean'd your affections from England for a while. I know your Lordship's reputation is precious to you; as it should be to every noble mind. You are now in Italy, the darling of nature, the nurse of policy, the theatre of virtue. Your brother complains that he has not heard from you a considerable time. At the time you write to him, a few lines to the person now addressing you, will be considered one of the greatest marks of honour that can possibly be conferred on your Lordship's

Most devoted Servant,

I—H—.

LETTER XXVII.

From I—H—, Esq. to Rich.—, Esq.

S I R,

THE eccho wants but a face, and the looking-glass a voice, to make them both living creatures, and to become the same bodies they represent; the one by repercussion of sound, the other by reflection of sight: your most ingenious letters to me from time to time represent you in a more lively manner than either the eccho or mirror can do, for they represent the better and nobler part of you, viz. the inward man; they set forth the motions of your soul, with the strength of your imagination; for as I know your exterior person by your lineaments, so I know you as well inwardly by your lines, and by those lively expressions you give of yourself; insomuch, that I believe, if the interior man within you were as visible as the outward, you would draw all the world after you; or if your admirable thoughts, and the words of your letters were eccho'd in any place, where they might rebound and be made audible, they are composed of such sweet and charming strains of ingenuity and eloquence

quence, that all the nymphs of the woods and valleys, the Driades, yea, the graces and muses, would be there; nay, Apollo himself would dwell longer with his rays, and make them reverberate more strongly, than either upon Pindus, or Parnassus, or Rhodes. Though my letters to you come far short of your's, yet are they the true ideas of my mind, and of a real and imbred affection I bear you. Besides my letters, I could wish there were a crystal casement in my breast, through which you might behold the motions of my heart. Then should you clearly see, without any deception of sight, how truly I am, and how entirely

Your's, J. H.

LETTER XXVIII.

I—H—, Esq. at Venice, to Rich. A—, Esq. in London.

DEAR SIR,

I HAVE just immersed from a deep fit of melancholy. Saturn had cast his black influence over all my intellectuals; me thought I felt my heart as a lump of dough, and heavy as lead within my breast; when a letter of your's was fortunately brought me, which presently begot new spirits within me, and made such strong impressions upon my intellectuals, that it turn'd and transform'd me into another man: I have read of a Duke of Milan and others, who were poison'd by reading of a letter; but your's produced contrary effects in me; it became an antidote, or rather a sovereign cordial to me, more operative than Bezar, of more virtue than gold, or the elixir of Amber, for it wrought a sudden cure upon me: that fluent and rare mixture of wit and friendship which I found up and down therein, were the ingredients of this cordial: they were as so many choice flowers strewed here and there, which cast forth such an odoriferous scent, that they reviv'd all my senses, and dispelled those dull fumes which had formerly over clouded my brain: such was the operation of your most ingenious and

affectionate letter ; such was the happiness it gave me. If your letter had such effect, what would your person have done ? and did you know all, you would wish yourself here awhile. Had you an idea of the grandeur of this city, you would relinquish your Royal Exchange for the Rialto, and your Vauxhall Gardens for St. Mark's Place. Farewel !

Your's most sincerely,

I—H—.

LETTER XXIX.

Monsieur Balzac to Cardinal de Richelieu.

MY LORD,

THE letter you have done me the honour to write to me, in which you express yourself in favour of my works, has done me as much credit, as if the public had erected a thousand statues to me, and I had been assured from some infallible authority, that my writings deserved commendation, To be praised by the man, whom our age opposes to all antiquity, and whom Heaven safely trusts with the government of this sublunary world, is a happiness which I could not have wished, without presumption ; so that I can scarce resolve myself as yet, whether it is a reality, or only an illusion of my fancy. But if it be true, that my eyes don't deceive me ; and if it be likewise true, that you have pass'd your judgment in my favour ; you, who have been chosen by all France, to carry her petitions and prayers to the king, and by the king, to carry his dispatches and orders to his armies and cities ; I must own to you, my Lord, that you have over paid me before-hand for all the services I shall ever be capable of doing you ; and I should be the most ungrateful creature upon the earth, if after I have receiv'd so distinguishing a favour, I should pretend to complain of my fortune. And indeed, since the preferments and honours of this world are, generally speaking, either the inheritance of folly, or the recompence of vice ;

vice; and virtue is forced to content itself with bare esteem and airy praises, ought I not to think myself fully rewarded; I, who have received from your goodness, that which our greatest generals, when they come home attended with conquests, can hardly hope for? In short, when I have every thing, which your eminency might expect for your great and immortal actions, if there were another Cardinal de Richelieu to reward you for them. But, my Lord, this last is a happiness, which will always be wanting to your glory: so after you have appeased the fury of an enraged multitude, by your single presence; after you have persuaded the European world, by the force of your arguments, to carry their arms to the holy land, and deliver from servitude that country, which had the honour to behold our Saviour's cradle: after you have brought over to the church an entire body of people, as well by the authority of your example, as that of your doctrine; who is it that can pay to your merits that incense, as they deserve? Or where can you find any one to relate the miracles of your life, as I have done, to encourage my poor studies, and small performances? This gives me a satisfaction which I cannot conceal; and my joy is too just to be secret. Is it possible, that so great a genius, to which heaven has prescribed no bounds, and which was ordained from its very youth, to persuade kings, to instruct ambassadors, and teach the statesmen of our succeeding reigns? Is it possible, I say, that so great a genius should have an esteem for me? in whose esteem his very enemies agree; and who, where he is pleased to bestow his approbation, effaces all diversity of opinions. Since you have been pleased to declare yourself in my favour, I am not at all concerned at what others may think of me. Whatever enemies the reputation you have bestowed upon me, has created me; yet when I consider who you are, and what an influence you have upon all who know you, I am perfectly satisfied and happy.

I am, my Lord,

Your Lordship's most humble

And most obedient Servant,

BALZAC.

LETTER XXX.

LETTER XXX.

GENIUS to LEONTES.

London.

FOR the account which you have so obligingly given me of the happiness of Sylvia and Clytander, I esteem myself much in your debt. I had always a peculiar regard for Sylvia, and am happy to find she has made choice of a man adequate to her merit.

Her friends, I remember, were once much inclined to send her to London; but I opposed them; and you may be sure they did not persist. She is now a comfort to an aged father and mother; but had she come to London, God knows what might not have been the consequence, however reproachless her conduct, or impeachless her honour.

Our London lovers, perhaps, have not that sincerity in their addresses, which rural swains inherit; though the latter may probably be somewhat degenerated since

- Those happy days, when all the nymphs and swains,
- In solemn festivals and rural sports,
- Paid their glad homage to the blooming Spring!

Let me beg your attention to the following narrative, which you may assure yourself is founded in truth.

Juliana, who was an heiress to a genteel fortune, but defrauded of it by an uncle, was apprenticed to a milliner near St. James's. It happened that, when she had with great reputation gone through her apprenticeship, one Manlius made his addresses to her. Juliana was very handsome, and had great attractions in her general manner of behaviour. It is true, she had always been unfortunate, and was in no higher sphere than that of a journeywoman milliner, but at the same time would have done credit to the politest companies.

Manlius was worth a thousand pounds per annum, but was distinguished only for noise, insolence, and ribaldry.

It was my misfortune to be in his company sometimes; for he had impudence enough to obtrude himself any where; and in particular, one evening, at a tavern, when this model of virtue was boasting of his licentious and depaunched life,
he

he intimated his design upon the amiable Juliana; and addressing himself to me, said, "By all that's sacred, she's one of the finest girls you ever saw in your life. She's very fond of me, and is of a devilish genteel family: she was heiress to a pretty fortune; but her parents dying when she was young, her uncle cheated her out of it. I was with her last night above two hours; and the sweet simple creature was every now and then questioning me about my *honourable intentions*, and such nonsense; upon which I swore by all that was good, my designs were of the most honourable nature, and that I could sooner suffer death than harbour the slightest idea of injuring so much beauty. I then squeezed her hand, and kiss'd her again and again, — while, reclining on my breast, she believed all that I said to her.—Poor Girl! I am forry for her—But these silly girls believe every thing we say to them.

"Good God! Sir! (said I,) and do you then really not intend to marry the young lady?"—"Marry her! (exclaim'd he)—not I indeed!—I'm not quite such a fool neither.—If I was to do that, I shou'd be ashamed to shew my face for a month afterwards."—"Why, what then do you intend to do with her? (said I,)"—"Do with her (replied he)—why I'll tell you what I intend to do with her.—I have already inform'd you that she is very fond of me: this fondness it must be my study to increase in her:—So, Sir, I raise her gradually to an extreme of affection that predominates over every other passion, and then"——
 "And then, Sir, (said I,) you surely will marry her!"——
 "And then, Sir, (added he,) I surely will debauch her."

"That's right," said I; "now that is acting just as I should act myself."—"Is it?" he replied, "why I thought, by your words and looks, you disapproved of my plan."
 "O!—no—no—'tis an admirable plan:—my words and looks were mere affectation:—you behave like a man of gallantry:—'tis an excellent plan.—Pray where does she live?—But perhaps 'tis an unfair question."—"O no!" said he,—
 "if you'll call on me in the evening, I'll take you with me to see her; and you'll say she's one of the finest girls in Europe."

It was about nine in the evening when we went to her apartments near Pall-mall; and I now found myself in company with one of the most pleasing and agreeable young women

women I had ever seen in my life. Manlius introduced me as his friend, and begg'd no ceremony might be used; then, taking Juliana by the hand, and addressing himself to me, said, "you now see the lady who is the object of my affections, and in whom all my happiness and wishes centre." The modesty and innocence which were to be the victim of his brutality; the beauty and amiableness that were on the precipice of destruction; the credulity and tenderness which were yielding to disguised infamy, raised in me a spirit of indignation against the *natural monster*.

Juliana saw not the danger she was in. She was, in her own gentle nature, too virtuous, too good and generous, to suppose such villainy could exist.

It was about half past ten when we left her. Manlius went to his tavern: I went to my home.

I now could not avoid reflecting on the scene which I had beheld: neither could I avoid to determine that Manlius should not ruin Juliana.

The following morning, therefore, I went to her, and informed her I had something of a particular nature to communicate to her. "Manlius, madam, (said I) is,"—"Manlius! Sir! (she instantly replied) what have you to say of Manlius?"—"why Manlius, madam, (I added) is a villain."—I then proceeded to particulars; but Juliana gave no credit to them. She said "she had too high an opinion of Manlius's honour to pay the least regard to my assertions." I then asked her whether proofs would have any weight with her?—Juliana was alarm'd: A wildness seized her eyes; her lovely features were distorted; her limbs trembled; her voice faltered; still her poor heart was indignant, and she dared me to proofs.

I now solicited the favour of pen, ink, and paper, and wrote literally as follows, directed to him.

'DEAR SIR,

A young lady of my acquaintance, who in point of beauty I think by no means inferior to Juliana, I have engaged on a party of pleasure to Richmond on Friday next. I know an exceeding *convenient* house at Richmond, and am perfectly well acquainted with the old lady who keeps it, a mighty good

good *motherly* fort of old woman, who will let us do just what we please; therefore if you have any real design on Juliana's virtue, suppose you persuade her to make one of the party that day.—What think you of the thought?—The girls will be pretty company for each other.—If you approve of my scheme, write immediately to

Your humble Servant, &c.

Juliana, on reading the above, lifted her eyes to Heaven, crying, "My God! can this be possible?"—Then turning towards me, "O dear sir! I know not what to think, or what to say! you have put me in the greatest distress imaginable! I am all confusion!—Do you really intend to send this letter to Manlius? Or do you come to insult a poor unhappy girl that never did hurt to any one?"—I assured her I would certainly send it, and that she should see the answer. I then left her in tears; sent the letter as I had promised; and soon received the following.

'DEAR SIR,

I admire your scheme prodigiously, and am much obliged to you. I shall see Juliana in the evening, and make no doubt of engaging her. I think you had better previously write to the good old motherly lady that you speak of: But I leave every thing to your own superior judgment and contrivance, and am, my dear sir,

Your most sincere humble Servant, &c.'

I took the answer to Juliana, who knew the hand-writing too well to doubt the identity of it; and as she had prepared for the shock, she received it with fortitude. But her gratitude to Heaven for her providential escape; her gratitude to myself as the saving instrument; her aspect and demeanour; her tremors, emotions, and distresses, my pen shall not attempt to describe. Her innocent heart had been injured; it became sensible of the injury, and felt that resentment due from a woman of real honour and virtue.

Two days did not pass before I received a challenge from Manlius. I accepted it, and went to the appointed place of combat; but it happened to be a cool morning, and he *over-*
Sept himself. The

The young lady, who has been the subject of this letter, became afterwards the wife of a very deserving tradesman, and is the mother of three beautiful children, two girls and a boy, who do credit to their parents by their gentleness and amiableness of manners. Adieu.

LETTER XXXI.

LORD CHESTERFIELD to his Son, PHILLIP DORMER
STANHOPE.

MY DEAR PHILIP,

YOU know I have often told you, that my affection for you is not a weak womanish one; and far from blinding me, it makes me but more quick-sighted as to your faults: those it is not only my right, but my duty to tell you of; and it is your duty and your interest to correct them. In the strict scrutiny which I have made into you, I have (thank God!) hitherto not discovered any vice of the heart, or any peculiar weakness of the head; but I have discovered laziness, inattention, and indifference; faults which are only pardonable in old men, who, in the decline of life, when health and spirits fail, have a kind of claim to that sort of tranquillity. But a young man should be ambitious to shine and excel; alert, active, and indefatigable in the means of doing it; and like Cæsar, *Nil actum reputans, si quid superesset agendum*. You seem to want that *vivida vis animi* which spurs and excites most young men to please, to shine, to excel. Without the desire and the pains necessary to be considered, depend upon it, you never can be so; as without the desire and attention necessary to please, you never can please. *Nullum numen abest, si sit prudentia*, is unquestionably true with regard to every thing except poetry; and I am very sure that any man of common understanding may, by proper culture, care, attention, and labour, make himself whatever he pleases, except a good poet. Your destination is the great and busy world; your immediate object is the affairs, the interests, and the history, the con-
stitutions;

stitutions, the customs, and the manners of the several parts of Europe. In this, any man of common sense may, by common application, be sure to excel. Ancient and modern history are by attention easily attainable; geography, and chronology the same; none of them requiring any uncommon share of genius or invention. Speaking and writing clearly, correctly, and with ease and grace, are certainly to be acquired by reading the best authors with care, and by attention to the best living models. These are the qualifications more particularly necessary for you in your department; which you may be possessed of if you please. If care and application are necessary to the acquiring of those qualifications, without which you can never be considerable, nor make a figure in the world, they are not less necessary with regard to the lesser accomplishments which are requisite to make you agreeable and pleasing in society. In truth, whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well; and nothing can be done well without attention.

I am, &c.

LETTER XXXII.

G—A—, Esq. at Vienna, to S—T—Esq. in London.

DEAR SIR,

TO be as good as my word, I will now give you some account of the country in which I have resided three years. In the first place, then, it is very fruitful in point of soil: the orchards are as productive as those of England; and the vineyards yield excellent wine. The springs here are innumerable; in Moravia, alone, there are thirty. The mineral waters of Spa consist of five wells. Of the various springs, some are hot, some cold, and others alternately hot and cold. Those of Pyrmont and Aix la Chapelle are so hot, that they cannot be used till after they have stood to cool several hours. In the diocese of Paderborn there is a spring which looses itself twice in twenty-four hours, coming always, after six hours, back again with great noise, and so forcibly as to drive three mills near its source.

F

No

No country in Europe has so many noble rivers as this has. The Danube, which rises from springs in the mountains, is very broad, runs with a rapid current, and has three great cataracts, which render it very difficult to pass. The Rhine is likewise very broad, and its course extremely rapid : navigation is interrupted by nine cataracts ; and yet it is navigable for 400 miles. The Elbe, which rises from the mountains near Hirschburgh in Silesia, runs through Bohemia in eleven different streams : its course is about 500 miles. There are the Oder, Weser, the Rhine, Moselle, and other rivers. I was three days at Bamberg, and saw the cathedral there : the altar and cross were of massy gold, embellished with the richest jewels ; and there is an image of our Saviour, with a nail fastened to a golden pillar, as one of those which nailed him to the cross. What particularly attracted my attention was a beautiful folio manuscript of the four gospels in Latin, upon fine vellum, in a neat Roman character, the binding covered with curious sculpture in ivory, inlaid with gold, and embellished with precious stones.

I was never at Ingoldstadt ; but am told that in the church of that place there is an image of the Virgin Mary of pure gold, adorned with jewels of great value ; and that before it kneels a golden image of one of the kings of France.

With respect to the public buildings which I have seen, the palace of Bavaria I think one of the grandest ; it has eleven courts, twenty halls, nineteen galleries, six chapels, and two thousand six hundred windows.

With regard to the Imperial palace here, it cannot be ranked with some others ; and indeed the city itself is not large, but the suburbs are very extensive. The city is well defended by six gates, and twelve walled bastions, with strong ravelins. There are eighty streets, and eighteen large market places ; twenty-nine churches, and eight chapels. Though much, as I have observed, cannot be said of the palace, a great deal may of the library, as the most valuable in Europe, and containing upwards of an hundred thousand volumes, and ten thousand manuscripts. Here is a Greek manuscript, above thirteen hundred years old, of the book of Genesis ; and another of the New Testament, equally distinguished for its antiquity. There are also, in the museum, sixteen thousand pieces of gold, silver, and copper, of ancient Greek and Roman

Roman coins, and many thousands of the most valuable curiosities of nature and art: and the academy for painting is distinguished for the fine pictures which it produces.

I never enjoyed my health better than I have done here; the air, to be sure, differs greatly in different parts; but, in general, it is temperate.

I shall not return to England so soon as I intended, on account of a young gentleman who is committed to my care, in consequence of the death of a clergyman who was his tutor, and who was my particular acquaintance.

The generality of the clergy here are both gentlemen and scholars; they behave with great politeness to strangers, and do honour to their profession. I wish I could say as much of the Popish clergy: not that the latter are deficient in point of politeness; but that I cannot perceive any thing very exemplary in their moral life.

I am most sincerely your's

G—A—

Explanation of common Abbreviations or Contractions of Words.

Note, *A Point, or Full Stop, is always to be written after a word thus abbreviated.*

Abp. *Archbishop*

A. D. *Anno Domini, or, the Year of our Lord*

V. D. M. *Verbi Dei Minister, Minister of the Word of God.*

F. A. S. *Fellow of the Antiquarian Society.*

S. T. P. *Professor Sacrae Theologiae, Professor of Sacred Theology.*

A. M. or M. A. *Master of Arts*

B. A. *Bachelor of Arts*

B. D. *Bachelor in Divinity*

Bp. *Bishop*

D. D. *Doctor in Divinity*

e. g. *for Example*

F. R. S. *Fellow of the Royal Society*

i. e. *id est, that is*

Knt. *Knight*

LL. D. *Doctor of Laws*

Lieut. *Lieutenant*

M. D. *Doctor of Physic*

M. S. *Manuscript*

& and

Viz. *Videlicet, to wit, or, that is to say*

&c. *et cetera, and the rest (or what follows)*

Abbreviations with regard to Time.

A. M. *Ante Meridiem, or, Morning*

P. M. *Post Meridiem, or, Afternoon.*

Numerical Letters composing the Roman Characters.

I, V, X, L, C, D, M. The I denotes one, V five, X ten, L fifty, C an hundred, D five hundred, and M a thousand.

The I repeated, makes two, II; thrice, three, III; four, IV; five, V; six, VI; seven, VII; eight, VIII; nine, IX; ten, X; XL, denotes forty; XC, ninety; L, followed with X, sixty; as LX, &c.

The letter D denotes five hundred; but this number may be also expressed by an I before C inverted; thus, IC; and thus in lieu of the M, which signifies a thousand, may be used an I between the two CCs, the one direct, the other inverted. Agreeable to this, six hundred may be expressed IC, &c.

Abbreviations in Ancient Inscriptions.

T. *Titulus*, Title; also Dignity or Honour; Monument, Remembrance.

C.C. *Consules*, Consuls

R.P. *Respublica*, Commonwealth

N. C. *Nobilissimus Cæsar*, Most Noble Cæsar. — The title *Nobilissimus* was considered as superior to *Illustris*, or *Illustrious*; and the Ro-

man ladies of the blood royal were stiled *Nobilissimæ*.

Abbreviations on Tomb- Stones.

S.V. *Siste Viator*: Stop, Traveller.

M.S. *Memoriæ Sacrum*, Sacred to the Memory.

I. H. S. *Iesus Salvator Hominum*, Jesus the Saviour of Mankind.

ARITHMETIC.

ARITHMETIC is the Art of Numbering, or that Part of Mathematics which considers the Powers and Properties of Numbers, and teaches how to calculate truly. It consists chiefly in the four great rules or operations of **ADDITION, SUBTRACTION, MULTIPLICATION, and DIVISION**; in my directions for the attainment of which, I shall proceed in the most plain, easy, and familiar manner possible. First I shall treat of

NOTATION,

Which is the art of characterising numbers, or of representing them by proper figures, which are the ten following: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0. Nine of these are called significant figures, by way of distinguishing them from the cypher, which, standing alone, has no signification; but is of force when standing with another figure; for instance, when standing behind a 4, it makes 40 of that 4.

NUMERATION

Is the Art of estimating any Number, or series of Numbers. It is a law of numeration that when you arrive at 10 you begin

begin again, and repeat as before; only expressing the number of tens. Either of the nine figures or digits, as arranged under the article, *Notation*, has two values; the one certain, the other uncertain: the certain value is, when it stands alone; the uncertain, when joined with other figures or cyphers: a 6 is simply six; a 3 is no more than three; but when joined with another figure or cypher, their value consequently increases.

NUMERATION TABLE.

Hundreds of Millions.	Tens of Millions.	Millions.	Hundreds of Thousands.	Tens of Thousands.	Thousands.	Hundreds.	Tens.	Units.
9	8	7, 6	5	4, 3	2	1		
	9	8, 7	6	5, 4	3	2		
		9, 8	7	6, 5	4	3		
			9	8	7, 6	5	4	
				9	8, 7	6	5	
					9, 8	7	6	
						9	8	
							9	

The above figures, beginning with the single figure 9, and read upwards, will be in words as follow:

Nine.

Ninety-eight.

Nine hundred and eighty-seven.

Nine thousand, eight hundred and seventy-six.

Ninety-eight thousand, seven hundred and sixty-five.

Nine hundred eighty-seven thousand, six hundred and fifty-four.

Nine

Nine millions, eight hundred seventy-six thousand, five hundred and forty-three.

Ninety-eight millions, seven hundred sixty-five thousand, four hundred and thirty-two.

Nine hundred eighty-seven millions, six hundred fifty-four thousand, three hundred and twenty-one.

That the nine figures in the above table may express not only units, but also tens, hundreds, thousands, &c. they have a local value given them; so as that, when either alone, or when placed in the right hand place, they denote units; in the second place, tens; in the third, hundreds; and in the fourth, thousands.

Numbers, when many, to be read with ease, should have commas between the figures; as, 123,456,789,02; which you thus read: one hundred twenty-three thousand, four hundred fifty-six millions, seven hundred eighty-nine thousand and twelve. Again, 276,245,678,921; read thus: two hundred seventy-six millions of millions, two hundred forty-five thousands of millions, six hundred seventy eight millions, nine hundred twenty-one thousand, four hundred and sixty.

ADDITION.

ADDITION consists in finding the amount of several numbers, or quantities, severally added one to another. Units must be placed under units, tens under tens, hundreds under hundreds, &c. as in the following examples:

Addition of Numbers of One Denomination.

<i>Yards.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>X of Pounds.</i>
T. U.	H. T. U.	Th. Th. H. T. U.
2 4	7 5 6	5 7 9 6 2
4 2	4 3 2	3 9 7 4 4
6 8	5 7 8	6 7 2 2 2
8 6	6 9 6	7 9 6 7 4
2 4	4 2 2	2 4 9 2
4 2	6 7 8	3 9 0
<u>28 6</u>	<u>35 6 2</u>	<u>24 7 4 8 4</u>

In the addition of simple numbers, whether yards, gallons, pounds, or any thing else, remember to carry 1 for every 10 that you find in the row of units, to the row of tens; and the like from the row of tens to the rank of hundreds, &c. and whatever it makes in the last, you must set down. The T, U, &c. above signify tens, units, &c. In casting up, to know the total of each, you must begin at the right hand, or row of units, of the first example, and say 2 and 4 is 6, and 6 is 12, and 8 is 20, and 2 is 22, and 4 is 26, in which row there are two tens and 6 over; therefore you set down 6 just under its own row, and carry 2 to the next or last row, and say, 2 that I carry and 4 make 6, and 2 is 8, and 8 is 16, and 6 is 22, and 4 is 26, and 2 is 28; and it being the last row, I set down the amount, viz. 28; so that the total number of yards is found to be at bottom 286. And the next or second example is found by the same method to be 3562 gallons. And in the third and last example the total number of pounds is found by the same method to be 247,484. And so the total of any other example of the same kind, viz. simple numbers of one denomination, may be found. Observe, that when any of the rows amount to exactly 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, &c. then you must set down the 0 under its proper row, and carry either 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5, according to the number of tens that you find, to the next row; and so you must always do when it so happens, whether in the first, second, or third row; or in any other, except the last, where what it amounts to must be set down, because there is no other row to carry to.

The addition of numbers of one denomination never varies from what has been directed above. Observe, that units must stand under units, tens under tens, &c.

The next in order is addition of numbers of several denominations; or addition of money; and here pounds must be set directly under pounds, shillings under shillings, pence under pence, and farthings under farthings, as in the following example.

But it will be necessary, before you proceed, to learn perfectly the following tables:

PENCE

PENCE TABLE.

d.	s.	d.	d.	s.
20	is	1	8	12
30	—	2	6	24
40	—	3	4	36
50	—	4	2	48
60	—	5	0	60
70	—	5	10	72
80	—	6	8	84
90	—	7	6	96
100	—	8	4	108
110	—	9	2	120
120	—	10	0	132
				144

SHILLING TABLE.

s.	is	£. s.
20	is	1 0
30	—	1 10
40	—	2 0
50	—	2 10
60	—	3 0
70	—	3 10
80	—	4 0
90	—	4 10
100	—	5 0
110	—	5 10
120	—	6 0

ADDITION OF MONEY.

Cash owing and Cash received.

Owing to	£.	s.	d.	Received for	£.	s.	d.
Mr. Williams	4	12	6	Tobacco	46	10	9
Mr. Bates	7	6	9	Sugar	79	16	0
Mr. Cole	4	12	0	Indigo	42	18	3
Mr. Smith	6	17	7	Mullins	66	12	4
Mr. Watkins	5	6	6	Broadcloth	90	16	0
Mr. Owen	4	12	3	Wine	84	7	6
Mr. Giles	6	0	0	Rice	24	12	0
Mr. Cooper	5	15	4	Logwood	60	10	0
	45	2	11		496	2	10

I begin with the example of money owing, and say 4 and 3 is 7, and 6 is 13, and 7 is 20, and 9 is 29, and 6 make 35 pence. Now 30 pence is 2s. 6d. and 5d, makes 2s. 11d. I set down 11 exactly under the row of pence, and say 2 shillings that I carry (which I do to the row of shillings) and 5 is 7, and 2 is 9, (for I only take the units row of shillings) and 6 is 15, and 7 is 22, and 2 is 24, and 6 is 30, and 2 make 32. And now being come to the top of the sum, and it making

32, I come down with the tens of shillings, saying 32 and 10 is 42, and 10 is 52, and 10 is 62, and 10 is 72, and 10 make 82 shillings. Now 80s. being 4l. I know that 82s. must be 4l. 2s. I therefore set down 2s. immediately under the row of shillings, and carry 4 pounds to the pounds; saying, 4 that I carry, and 5 is 9, and 6 is 15, and 4 is 19, and 5 is 24, and 6 is 30, and 4 is 34, and 7 is 41, and 4 make 45 pounds: so that the total of these several sums, due to the different persons, amount exactly to 45l. 2s. 11d.

In the example of money received, you begin at the right hand, (as we always do in addition, as well as subtraction and multiplication, working from the right hand to the left, though in division you begin at the left, and work to the right) and say 6 and 4 is 10, and 3 is 13, and 9 make 22; and 22 pence being 1s. 10d. I set down 10, and carry 1 shilling to the shillings; saying 1 that I carry and 2 is 3, and 7 is 10, and 6 is 16, and 2 is 18, and 8 is 26, and 6 make 32: then I come down with the tens, saying 32 and 10 make 42, &c. and find at the bottom it comes to 102 shillings; which, making 5l. 2s. I set down 2s. and carry 5l. to the pounds; saying, 5 that I carry, and 4 is 9, &c. I find that at the top it amounts to 36, whereof I set down 6 exactly under its own row, viz. the row of units of pounds, and carry 3 for the 3 tens that are in 30; for in the first denomination of addition, whether of money, weight, or measure; that is, in the denomination of pounds, tons, or yards, you must always cast them up as sums of one denomination; that is, for every ten carry one to the next, &c. saying, 3 that I carry and 6 in 9, and 2 is 11, and 8 is 19, &c. and find that at the top it comes to 49: therefore I set down 49 before the 6; and the total amount of the money received for the above mentioned articles of trade is 496l. 2s. 10d.

Example for the Learner's Practice.

Money due from	£.	s.	d.
Mr. Humphreys	17	12	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mr. Grant	26	10	2
Mr. Powell	50	0	0
Carried over	94	2	8 $\frac{1}{2}$

Brought over	94	2	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mr. Hancock	44	12	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mr. Tanner	60	14	0
Mr. Wilkinson	29	16	6 $\frac{3}{4}$
Mr. Freeman	16	10	0
Mr. Cooke	20	0	0
Mr. Lloyd	27	11	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Mr. Simmons	17	4	0
Mr. Harrifon	20	10	3
Mr. Crewe.	46	16	8
	<u>377</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>3</u>

ADDITION OF AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT.

All the larger and coarser commodities are weighed by avoirdupois weight; as cheese, wool, lead, hops, hemp, flax, fruit, drugs, sugar, tobacco, &c.

A Table of Avoirdupois Weight.

Drams.					
16	Ounce				
256		16	Pound.		
7168		448		28	Quarter
28672		1792		112	
				4	Hundred.
573440	35840	2240	80	20	A Ton.

TABLE.

TABLE.

Small Weight.

C.	qrs.	20 lb.	10 lb.	16 oz.	16 dr.
5	— 1	— 16	24	— 11	— 12
4	— 2	— 24	42	— 14	— 15
6	— 3	— 6	64	— 10	— 11
7	— 1	— 12	29	— 9	— 10
9	— 0	— 20	16	— 12	— 13
6	— 2	— 0	27	— 13	— 14
<hr/>			<hr/>		
39	— 3	— 22	206	— 9	— 11
<hr/>			<hr/>		

In the first of the above examples I begin at the right-hand, viz. at the denomination of pounds, and stop at every 28, (making a dot with my pen) so many pounds making a quarter. I find two 28's. and 22lb. over; therefore I set down 22, and carry 2 qrs. to the quarters, and adding them up, find them 11, which is 2 hundred and 3 qrs. over; I therefore set down 3, and carry 2 to the hundreds; which also added up, make 39; so that the total weight is 39C. 3 qrs. and 22 lb.

In the example of small weight I stop at 16 and 16, and at 10 in the pounds, and find the total 206lb. 9 oz. and 11 drams.

Goods sold at the water side, or else where, are not weighed by the ton in great weight, though some goods are sold by it, as iron, log-wood, cheese, &c. but by hundreds, quarters, and pounds, and afterwards computed by tons, &c.

ADDITION OF TROY WEIGHT.

By this weight are weighed jewels, gold, silver, silk, and all liquors. The denominations are pounds, ounces, penny-weights, and grains; 24 grains make one penny-weight; 20 penny-weights one ounce, 12 ounces one pound troy; 25 lb. a quarter of a hundred; 20 hundred one ton.

*Example for the Learner's Practice.**Six Ingots of Silver Weight.*

wt.	lb.	oz.	pw.	gr.
1	4	5	12	10
2	5	4	16	17
3	3	11	19	20
4	4	6	7	12
5	5	1	11	12
6	4	11	12	13
<hr/>				
	28	6	0	12
<hr/>				

In the denomination of grains I stop at 24, and find it amount to 3 penny-weights and 12 grains over; so that I set down 12 grains, and carry 3 penny-weights to the penny-weights; and I say 3 that I carried, & 2 is 5, and 1 is 6, and 7 is 13, and 9 is 22, and 6 is 28, and 2 is 30; and the coming down with the tens, I say 30 and 10 is 40; and 10 is 50; just in the same manner as in the addition of money; for, as 20s. make a pound in that, so 20 penny-weights make an ounce in this; and I find it come to exactly 80. Now in 80 there are just 4 twenties, or 4 ounces; therefore I set down 0, and carry 4 to the ounces, and find them amount to 42, which makes 3 pounds, and 6 ounces over; so I set down 6, and carry 3 to the pounds; saying, 3 I carry and 4 is 7, and 5 is 12, and find they come to 28; and the total is 28lb. 6 oz. 0 pw. 12 gr.

SUBTRACTION.

The second rule or operation of Arithmetic is SUBTRACTION, or SUBSTRACTION, as commonly called; whereby we deduct a lesser Number from a greater, in order to know the exact difference. Place the lesser Number under the greater, with the same care and order as in Addition: let units stand under units, tens under tens,

tens, &c. and the remainder under the line is the difference sought; and this difference, being added again to the lesser Number, will make the greater Number, and is a certain proof of the said Rule. Whatever you used to stop at in Addition, whether of one denomination or of several, the same you must borrow in Subtraction when necessary; remembering to pay or carry 1 to the next place towards the left hand. Suppose Mr. Jones owes to Mr. Watts 323*l*. of which sum Mr. Jones has paid to Mr. Watts 146*l*. what remains due to Mr. Watts?

Answer 177*l*. Here the lesser Number, 146, stands under the greater, 323; and to find the remainder, or sum due, I say, 6 from 3 I cannot; but 6 from 13, (for you must always borrow ten of the next figure in the same under line, and put it to the figure or cypher that stands directly over the figure you subtract,) and there remains 7; then, 1 that I borrow, and 4, is 5; for as I borrowed 10 (or 1) out of 4, so I must pay the said 1 or 10, (for so it really is, because of the decuple proportion of increase from the right-hand to the left,) to the said figure 4 again, as above-mentioned; I say, 5 from 2 I cannot, but 5 from 12, (borrowing 10, and putting it to the over figure 2, as above-directed,) and there remains 7; and then, 1 that I borrowed, and 1, is 2; from 3, the over-figure, and there rests 1, and so the example is done; and by it is shewn, that Jones still owes Watts 177 pounds, as appears in the work; and, in order to prove it, add 177, the remainder, to 146, the lesser of the two given Numbers, and it will make 323, being the same with the greater Number, or sum of money first due; and this is a clear proof of the truth and certainty of the Rule. And as *Subtraction* is proved by *Addition*, so may *Addition* be proved by *Subtraction*: for if the two aforesaid Numbers, 323 and 146, be added, the total will be 469; from which, if you deduct 146, the remainder will be the greater Number: or, if you subtract 323 from 469, the remainder will be 146, the lesser Number.

All examples or sums in Subtraction of one denomination, are performed as above, without the least variation.

Suppose a man has 6904 eggs, and takes 2490 of them

to market, how many does he leave behind?—To know this, set down as follows:

From	6904
Take	2490
	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>
Answer	4414

I say, 0 from 4, and there remains 4; then, 9 from nothing (or 0) I cannot; but, 9 from 10, (making the 0 10,) and there remains 1; then, 1 that I borrow, and 4, make 5; and, 5 from 9, and there rests 4; and lastly, 2 from 6, and there remains also 4, (for I borrowed none, and therefore have none to pay,) so that he leaves behind him just 4414 eggs; which, put to the number he takes to market, makes the number he first had, viz. 6904, and shews the deduction to be true, and the answer right.

Examples for the Learner's practice.

	Yards.	Gallons.	Pounds.
From	3700	47200	479672
Take	1976	31976	97694
	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>
Remain	1724	15224	381978
	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>
Proof	3700	47200	479672

SUBTRACTION OF DIVERS DENOMINATIONS.

Of Money.

Suppose Mr. Lucas owes Mr. Jennings 9*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* and Mr. Lucas has paid to Mr. Jennings 6*l.* 16*s.* 4*d.* what remains due to Mr. Jennings?

	£.	s.	d.
Due	9	2	6
Paid	6	16	4
	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>	<hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/>
Due	£2	6	2

I say

I say $4d.$ from $6d.$ and there remains $2d.$ Then, $16s.$ from $2s.$ I cannot, but, borrowing one integer of the next denomination, or 1 pound, which is twenty shillings, I say, 16 from 20, and there remains 4, and taking the over number 2, and putting it to the remainder 4, makes 6; therefore I set down 6 in the place of shillings, and say, 1 that I borrow, and 6, is 7; and 7 from 9, there remains 2: so that the money remaining due to Mr. Jennings, is exactly $2l. 6s. 2d.$ as above.

Another Example.

Mr. Lee sells to Mr. Lawrence a quantity of cloth to the amount of $242l. 16s. 3\frac{3}{4}d.$ and receives, in ready cash, $174l. 12s. 6\frac{1}{2}d.$ what remains due to Mr. Lee?

	£.	s.	d.
Sold for	242	16	$3\frac{3}{4}$
Paid in part	174	12	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Remains due	<u>£68</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>$9\frac{1}{4}$</u>

I say, 2 farthings from 3, and there remains 1 farthing, which I set down under the denomination of farthings; then 6 from 3 I cannot, but 6 from 12, (or 12 pence,) and there remains 6, and $3d.$ over it makes $9d.$ which I place under the line in its right place, viz. pence; then, 1 that I borrowed, (that is, 1 shilling,) and 12, is 13: $13s.$ from $16s.$ and there remains $3s.$ which I likewise set down under its own rank; then, 4 from 2 I cannot, but 4 from 12, (borrowing 10, as in Addition, I carry 1 for every 10,) and there remains 8; then, 1 that I borrow and 7, makes 8: 8 from 4 I cannot, but 8 from 14, and there remains 6; so that the sum remaining due is exactly $68l. 3s. 9\frac{1}{4}d.$

For a proof of it, you must add the remainder $68l. 3s. 9\frac{1}{4}d.$ to the lesser, or under sum, $174l. 12s. 6\frac{1}{2}d.$ and it will make exactly $242l. 16s. 3\frac{3}{4}d.$ the sum first due; as in the example above.

MULTIPLICATION.

THIS third Rule in Arithmetic, is the act or art of multiplying one number by another, to find the product: it consists of finding some third number out of two others given; wherein one of the given numbers is contained as often as unity is contained in the other. Or Multiplication is the finding what will be the sum of any number added to itself, or repeated, as often as there are units in another; thus the Multiplication of 4 by 5 makes 20; that is, 4 times 5 amount to 20.

The number to be multiplied, or the Multiplicand, is placed over that whereby it is to be multiplied, and the product under both.

An example or two will make the process of Multiplication easy.

Suppose I wish to know the product of 269, multiplied by 8: that is, 8 times 269.

The Multiplicand is	269
The Multiplier	8
	<hr/>
Product	2152
	<hr/>

The numbers being thus disposed, and a line drawn underneath, (as in the example,) I begin with the Multiplier thus: 8 times 9 make 72; set down 2, and carry 7 tens, as in Addition; then, 8 times 6 make 48, and 7 I carried, 55; set down 5, and carry 5; lastly, 8 times 2 make 16, and with 5 I carried 21, which I set down: so that coming to number the several figures placed in order, 2, 1, 5, 2, I find the product to be 2152.

Now supposing the numbers to express things of different kinds, viz. the Multiplicand shall be yards, and the Multiplier pounds; the Product will be of the same kind with the Multiplier. Thus the Product of 269 yards, multiplied by 8 pounds or pence, is 2152 pounds or pence; so many of these going to the 269, at the rate of 8 a-piece.

Hence

Hence the vast utility of Multiplication in the course of trade. But, before I proceed any further, I shall present the reader with the following table.

MULTIPLICATION TABLE.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30	33	36
4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48
5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60
6	12	18	24	30	36	42	48	54	60	66	72
7	14	21	28	35	42	49	56	63	70	77	84
8	16	24	32	40	48	56	64	72	80	88	96
9	18	27	36	45	54	63	72	81	90	99	108
10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120
11	22	33	44	55	66	77	88	99	110	121	132
12	24	36	48	60	72	84	96	108	120	132	144

To explain the use of this table, suppose you wanted to know how many is 9 times 7, look for the figure 9 in the first column of the left hand, and the figure 7 in the top row, and the number sought for will be found in the angle between them, thus:

	7
9	63

How

How much is 3 times 472?—Answer, 1416. I set down thus:

$$\begin{array}{r} 472 \\ 3 \\ \hline 1416 \end{array}$$

I say, 3 times 2 is 6, which I place under the Multiplier 3; then, 3 times 7 is 21; I set down 1 under 7, and carry 2 for the two tens, as in Addition of one denomination: then 3 times 4 is 12, and 2 is 14, which I set down, and the Product is 1416; that is, 3 times 472 make 1416; and it may be proved by Addition, by setting down 472 three times in additional order, and casting it up. And as 3 times 472 make 1416, so does 472 times 3 make exactly the same. Hence we perceive Multiplication, on occasion, compendiously performing the office of Addition.

Example.

How much is 742 multiplied by 4? I set down thus:

$$\begin{array}{r} 742 \text{ Multiplicand} \\ 4 \text{ Multiplier} \\ \hline 2968 \text{ Product} \end{array}$$

In the above example, I say, 4 times 2 is 8, and 4 times 4 is 16; 6 and carry 1; and 4 times 7 is 28, and 1 is 29, which I set down; so the whole product is 2968.

More Examples of one Figure in the Multiplier.

Multiplicand	7420	4444	7460	90704
Multiplier	5	6	7	8
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Product	37100	26664	52220	725632
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>

COMPOUND

COMPOUND MULTIPLICATION

Consists of two, three, four, or more figures, or figures and cyphers. Here, you must begin with that figure which is in the place of units of the Multiplier, and go through the whole Multiplicand, by multiplying each figure of it first by that said unit figure, then by the next, viz. by the figure in the place of tens of the Multiplier; then with the third, &c. to the last; remembering to place the first figure of every product exactly under the figure you multiply by; and then add the several products together; which, thus collected, will give the total product required.

Example.

What is the Product of 23 times 7426?

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{I set down} \quad 7426 \\
 \text{Under it} \quad 23 \\
 \hline
 22278 \\
 14852 \\
 \hline
 170798
 \end{array}$$

I first begin with the unit figure 3 in the Multiplier: I say, 3 times 6 is 18; 8 (which I set directly under 3, by which I multiply) and carry 1; then, 3 times 2 is 6, and 1 is 7; then, 3 times 4 is 12; 2, and carry 1; then, 3 times 7 is 21, and 1 is 22: and so I have done with the first figure of the Multiplier, 3. Then I go to the next, viz. 2, and say, twice 6 is 12; 2, and carry 1; (I put 2 exactly under 7, as above) then, twice 2 is 4, and 1 is 5; then, twice 4 is 8; and lastly, twice 7 is 14. Then I add the two products together, saying, 8 is 8, 7 and 2 is 9, &c. and the result of the Multiplier is 170798.

Example.

Example.

What is the product of 527527 multiplied by 285?

$$\begin{array}{r}
 527527 \\
 \times 285 \\
 \hline
 2637635 \\
 4220216 \\
 1055054 \\
 \hline
 150345195
 \end{array}$$

- When there are cyphers between the figures in the Multiplier, they may be omitted, placing an o under the o in the Multiplier, and taking care to place the first figure of the next product further to the left, under the figure by which you multiply. Thus,

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{Multiplicand} \quad 1625 \\
 \text{Multiplier} \quad \quad 104 \\
 \hline
 \text{Product} \quad \quad 6500 \\
 \text{Product} \quad \quad 16250 \\
 \hline
 \text{Total Product} \quad 169000
 \end{array}$$

When there are any cyphers at the end of the Multiplicand or Multiplier, they may be omitted, by only multiplying by the rest of the figures, and setting down on the right hand of the Total Product as many cyphers as were omitted. Thus,

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{Multiplicand} \quad 140 \\
 \text{Multiplier} \quad \quad 20 \\
 \hline
 \text{Product} \quad \quad 2800
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{Multiplicand} \quad 27000 \\
 \text{Multiplier} \quad \quad 200 \\
 \hline
 \text{Product} \quad \quad 5400000
 \end{array}$$

Multiplication of Money.

This has much affinity with Addition of Money, the same method being taken in carrying from one denomination to the next, viz. from farthings to pence, from pence to shillings, and from shillings to pounds: and as, in Addition, you begin at the right hand, and proceed towards the left; so here you begin at the least denomination, which is also at the right hand. This mode of accompting is the most apt and expeditious of all others, for small quantities; and therefore very necessary in making bills of parcels, &c. The general rule is always to multiply the price by the quantity.

Example.

	£.	s.	d.
Multiply	7	12	6
(Or 6 pieces of cloth, at 7 <i>l.</i> 12 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per			6
piece) by			}
	£ 45 15 0		

Here I say, 6 times 6 is 36 pence, which is just 3*s.* I set down 0 in the place of pence, and carry 3*s.* to the place of shillings, (exactly the same as in the Addition of Money,) then, 6 times 12 is 72, and 3 is 75*s.* or 3*l.* 15*s.* So that I set down 15 in the place of shillings, and carry 3 to the pounds; then, 6 times 7 is 42, and 3 is 45*l.* So that the whole amount of the 6 pieces of cloth, at 7*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* per piece, is exactly 45*l.* 15*s.*

Example.

What do 12 gallons of Geneva amount to, at 5*s.* 4*d.* per gallon?

	s.	d.
	5	4
		12
	£ 3 4 0	

Here I say, 12 times 4 is 48; 0, and carry 4; then, 12 times 5 is 60, and 4 is 64*s.* or 3*l.* 4*s.*

Advances

Advances in this way of reckoning of quantities exceeding 12, go even to 12 times 12, or 144; all which, as far as 144, are found in the Multiplication Table, a thorough and accurate learning of which I recommend as indispensibly necessary.

What do 15 yards of cloth amount to,

at 3s. 5d. per yard? 3 5
10 3
5

£2 11 3

Here I say, 3 times 5 is 15d. or 1s. 3d. 3 and carry 1s. then, 3 times 3 is 9, and 1 is 10s. So the first product is 10s. 3d. which I multiply by 5, saying, 5 times 3 is 15d. or 1s. 3d. 3, and carry 1; then, 5 times 10 is 50, and 1 is 51, or 2l. 11s. So that the whole amount of 15 yards, at 3s. 5d. per yard, is 2l. 11s. 3d. And it is thus demonstrable: if 10s. 3d. be the value of 3 times 3s. 5d. then 5 times the value of 10s. 3d. must be 15 times the value of 3s. 5d. because 5 times 3 is 15. And this is to be proved by Addition and Multiplication thus: Set down 3s. 5d. three times in additional order, and put the three lines together, and multiply the total of them by 5, and the answer will be precisely the same: as

s. d.
3 5
3 5
3 5
10 3
5
£2 11 3

If the Multiplier is above 12, multiply by any two numbers, which multiplied together will make the same number; but if no two numbers multiplied together will make the exact

exact number, then multiply the multiplicand, or top line, by as many as are wanting, adding it to the last product. Thus, multiply 3*l.* 7*s.* 2*d.* by 29, and the product will be 97*l.* 7*s.* 10*d.* worked as follows: multiply first by 3 and next by 9 and afterwards by 2; for 3 times 9 is 27, and 2 is 29.

	£.	s.	d.	
Multiply	3	7	2	Multiplicand.
by . . .			3	Multiplier.

Then Multiply	10	1	6	Product.
by . . .			9	Multiplier.

	90	13	6	Product

Next multiply the Multiplicand
or top line

	3	7	2
by			2

This	6	14	4	
			6	

added to 90 13 6

gives 97 7 10 the answer.

Questions by way of Application.

1. What sum of money does it require to give 14 men 12*l.* 10*s.* each.

4 times 3 is 12, and 2 is 14.

Multiply therefore

	£.	s.
Multiply therefore	12	10
by		4

	50	0	and then this
by		3	

	150	0

Then multiply	£.	s.
	12	10
by		2

25	0	added to	150	25	0
					0

- gives 175 0 the answer.

H

To

To prove Multiplication, you must (having multiplied the Multiplicand by the Multiplier) multiply, on the contrary, the Multiplier by the Multiplicand; as, 365 by 24.

$$\begin{array}{r} 365 \\ 24 \\ \hline 1460 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Here I say, (reversely) 5 times 4 is 20; 0, and carry 2; 6 times 4 is 24, and 2 is 26; 6, and carry 2; and 3 times 4 is 12, and 2 is 14.

$$\begin{array}{r} 1460 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

DIVISION.

THIS last of the four fundamental rules of Arithmetic, is, strictly, no more than a compendious method of Subtraction; its effect being to take a less number from another greater, as often as possible; that is, as often as it is contained therein. There are, therefore, three Numbers in this Rule. 1. That given to be divided, called the Dividend. 2. That whereby the Dividend is to be divided, called the Divisor. 3. That which expresses how often the Divisor is contained in the Dividend; or the number resulting from the division of the Dividend by the Divisor, called the Quotient.

Division is either single or compound; single, when the Divisor consists of a single figure, and the Dividend of two at most; compound, when the Dividend has several figures or cyphers.

Example

Example.

How many times 7 are there in 365? Or how many weeks are there in a year?

$$\begin{array}{r}
 7 \overline{) 365} \quad (52 \\
 \underline{35} \\
 15 \\
 \underline{14} \\
 (1)
 \end{array}$$

Having set down the example, with two half parenthesis, one for the Divisor, the other for the Quotient, I begin by asking, how often I can take 7, the Divisor, out of 36, the two first figures of the Dividend, (for I cannot take 7 out of 3, the Quotient never beginning with 0,) and the answer is 5 times; I therefore place 5 in the Quotient, and multiply the Divisor 7 by it, saying, 5 times 7 is 35, which I place under 36; and then I subtract 35 from 36, and there remains 1; to which I bring down the next or last figure of the Dividend, viz. 5, and there is 15 for a new dividend, or dividend, to work on. Then I ask, how often 7 may be taken in 15? And the answer is twice, or two times; therefore, I put 2 in the Quotient, next to the 5; by which 2 I likewise multiply the Divisor 7, saying, twice 7 is 14; which I set down under 15, and subtract, and there remains 1, which I place thus, (1) as it stands in the work above; where, observe, that 365 is the Dividend, 7 the Divisor, 52 the Quotient, or answer, and 1 the Remainder. The Quotient declares that 7 is contained, in 365, 52 times, and 1 over or remaining; which I set over the Divisor thus $\frac{1}{7}$, as signifying that there is one-seventh of a week, or one day, more than just 52 weeks in a year, or 365 days.

Observe, that if there had been more figures or cyphers in the Dividend, they must have been all brought down, one by one, and, after Subtraction, set to the remainder. And should there remain 0, you must still bring down only one figure or cypher at a time; and for every figure or 0 so brought down, there must be a figure or 0 placed in the

quotient, according to the times you can take the divisor out of the several dividualls you make, by drawing down a figure or cypher at a time out of the dividend, till all be brought down, and the work ended.

Suppose, by way of specimen, we divide 8060 pounds of tobacco equally among 8 men

$$\begin{array}{r}
 8 \overline{) 8060} \quad (1007 \\
 \underline{8 \dots} \\
 60 \\
 \underline{56} \\
 (4)
 \end{array}$$

Here I say the eighths in 8 once; which I put in the quotient; then the eighths in 0, 0 times which I likewise put in the quotient; then the eighths in 6, 0 times again; which is also placed in the quotient, and there remains 6; to which I bring down 0, the last of the dividend, and it makes 60: lastly, the eighths in 60 7 times, and 7 times 8 is 56 from 60, and there remains 4: so the quotient shews that each man must have 1007 pounds of tobacco for his share in the dividend 8060, and their remain 4 pounds over, which make half a pound more due to each, because 4 the remainder, is half of 8 the divisor; and so the work is done, the quotient giving to each man 1007 pounds and an half for his share.

Observe, that in the operation, every time you bring down a figure or cypher, you must make a dot or point under the dividend (as in the example above) to signify that such a figure or cypher has been brought down and done with.

The above way of working is very plain; but the following is a quicker way. The divisor shall be a single figure.

$ \begin{array}{r} 4 \overline{) 78906} \\ \hline \text{Quotient: } 19726 \text{ (2)} \\ 4 \\ \hline \text{Proof: } 78906 \\ \hline \hline \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{r} 5 \overline{) 34567} \\ \hline 6913 \text{ (2)} \\ 5 \\ \hline 34567 \\ \hline \hline \end{array} $
---	--

I say,

I say, in the first example, the 4's in 7 once, and there remains 3; which make 8, the next figure in the dividend 38; then the 4's in 38, 9 times; 9 times 4 is 36, from 38, and there remains 2; which make 9, the next figure in the dividend, 29; then the 4's in 29, 7 times; 7 times 4 is 28 from 29, and there remains 1; which make 6, the next of the Dividend, 10, and the 4's in 10 twice: twice 4 is 8 from 10, and there remains 2; which make 6, the last of the dividend, 26; lastly the 4's in 26, 6 times; and 6 times 4 is 24, from 26, and there rest 2 the remainder. And so for the other example. And for a proof of the work, or any other example, multiply the quotient by the divisor, and take in the remainder in the first place, or place of units; and if the product be the same with the dividend, the division is right; for I say, 4 times 6 is 24, and 2 the remainder makes 6; 26 and go 2, &c.

It being as necessary to multiply by 11 or 12, as by a single figure, to have the product in one line, so divide as in the following.

Examples.

$$\begin{array}{r} 11 \overline{) 7264626} \\ \underline{6604200} \quad (6) \\ 11 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Proof} \quad 72646206 \\ \underline{72646206} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 11 \overline{) 47627000} \\ \underline{4329727} \quad (3) \\ 11 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Proof} \quad 47627000 \\ \underline{47627000} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 12 \overline{) 76677240} \\ \underline{6389770} \\ 12 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 76677240 \\ \underline{76677240} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 12 \overline{) 42007400} \\ \underline{3500616} \quad (8) \\ 12 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 42007400 \\ \underline{42007400} \end{array}$$

In the first of the above examples I say the 11's in 72 answer 6 times; in the second, the 12's in 76 answer 6 times; in the third, the 11's in 47, 4 times; 4 times 11 is 44, from 47, and there remains 3, &c. In the fourth I say, the 12's in 42, 3 times; 3 times 12 is 36, from 42, and there remain 6, &c.

When

When you divide by 10, 100, 1000, or even 10,000, you have only to cut off or separate so many figures or cyphers of the dividend towards the right hand, as you have cyphers in the divisor, and those figures towards the left make your quotient; and those cut off towards the right are the remainder.

Examples.

Divide 123456789 by 10, 100, 1000, or 10,000.

By 10 the Quotient is 12345678, and the Remainder 9

By 100 the Quotient is 1234567, the Remainder 89

By 1000 the Quotient is 123456, the Remainder 789

By 10,000 the Quotient is 12345, the Remainder 6789.

When the Divisor consists of several figures, there appears some difficulty in the work; but this is easily surmounted, as will appear.

Suppose I have an estate of 30,000l. a year, what is my daily income?

If I divide 30,000 by 365 (the days in a year, the quotient will be the answer. You must set down thus:

365) 30,000 (

And now seek how many times 365 can be taken in 300, (an equal number of places with the Divisor) answer 0 times, therefore you go to a place farther to the right hand in the Dividend, (for 0 must never begin the Quotient) and make a point or dot under it, viz. under the last 0 but one; and there being a place more in this pointed-out dividend than in the divisor, you seek how often the first figure of the divisor, viz. 3 is contained in the two first figures or places of the dividend, viz. 30, and the answer is 10 times; but you must never take more than 9 times at once in any of these examples of Division; you must therefore weigh in your mind whether it will bear 9 times before you set it down in the Quotient; saying to yourself, or in your mind, 9 times 5 is 45; 5 and go 4; 9 times 6 is 54, and 4 is 58; 8 and go 5; and 9 times 3 is 27, and 5 is 32. Now 32 cannot be taken out of 30; therefore you must take a time less by an unit, viz. 8 times; and finding it will go 8 times, set down 8 in the quotient; and then say 8 times 5 is 40; 0 and carry 4, and 8 times 6 is 48, and 4 is 52; 2 and carry 5; and 8 times 3 is 24; and 5 is 29. Then there is 2920 to be taken from 3000; and after subtraction, the work thus appears:

$$\begin{array}{r} 365 \overline{) 3000} \quad (8 \\ \underline{2920} \end{array}$$

80

Then to the Remainder 80 I bring down 0, the last of the Dividend; and there is 800 for a new dividual. You must now try how often you can take 365 out of the said Dividual 800, and the number of places being equal to both in Divisor and Dividual, viz. 3, ask how often 3 in 8? answer, twice; therefore put 2 in the Quotient, and say, twice 5 is 10; 0 and carry 1; and twice 6 is 12, and 1 is 13; 3 and carry 1; and twice 3 is 6, and 1 is 7; so there is 730 to be deducted from 800, and the Remainder is 70, as will appear:

$$\begin{array}{r} 365 \overline{) 30000} \quad (82 \\ \underline{2920} \end{array}$$

800

730

(70)

Thus you see plainly, by the work, that I have eighty-two pounds a day; which if multiplied by 20, the shillings in a pound, would produce 1400 shillings: which if divided per said Divisor 365, there would come 3s. a day more, and there will be a remainder of 305: which, multiplied by 12, the pence in a shilling, produces 3660; which, still divided by 365, gives 10d. a day more: so that 30,000l. a year is exactly 82l. 3s. 10d. a day.

DIVISION OF MONEY.

Example.

If I divide 26l 12s. 6d. equally among five men, how much will each man have for his share?

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{£.} \quad \text{s.} \quad \text{d.} \\ 5 \overline{) 26 \quad - \quad 12 \quad - \quad 6} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 5 \quad - \quad 6 \quad - \quad 6 \end{array}$$

5

Proof

$$\begin{array}{r} 26 \quad - \quad 12 \quad - \quad 6 \end{array}$$

In the working of this I say the 5's in 26, 5 time's: 5 times 5 is 25, from 26, and there remains 1, or 1 pound, or 20 shillings; which, with the 12s. in the place of shillings, make 32 shillings; then the 5's in 32, 6 times; 6 times 5 is 30, from 32, and there remains 2s. or 24d. which with 6d. in the place of pence makes 30; then the 5's in 30, 6 times: So that each man receives 5l. 6s. 6d. as his share. The truth of this is proved by Multiplication of Money, (for the Rules of Multiplication and Division reciprocally prove each other) as, 5 times 6 is 30; 6 and carry 2; and 5 times 6 is 30, and 2 is 32; 12 and carry 1; and 5 times 5 is 25 and 1 is 26, &c.

Example II.

Suppose I divide 246l. 13s. 4d. equally among twelve people, what will each have?

$$12 \overline{) 246 \text{ — } 13 \text{ — } 4}$$

Answer

$$\underline{20 \text{ — } 11 \text{ — } 1 \frac{4}{12}}$$

Here I say the 12's in 24 twice, and the 12's in 6, 0 times and there remains 6l. or 120s. and 13s. make 133; then the 12's in 133 are 11, and there remains 1s. or 12d. then 12 and 4 is 16; and the 12's in 16 once, and 4 remains. So that each man receives 20l. 11s. 1d. $\frac{4}{12}$, or four twelfths of a penny.

When any quantity is such a number, that any two digits of the multiplication table, multiplied together, make the said quantity or number, then the quotient may be expeditiously found at two divisions, and sooner than at one, viz. divide 7872 by 32. Here the digits or component parts are ratios, which, multiplied together, make the divisor 32, and 4 and 8, or 8 and 4: for it is of no consequence which of the ratios you divide by first; for either of the divisions gives a true and the same quotient; as may be seen by the different methods of the following work:

$$4 \overline{) 7872}$$

$$8 \overline{) 1968}$$

246 Quotient.

$$\text{Or thus: } 8 \overline{) 7872}$$

$$4 \overline{) 984}$$

246 Quotient.

Here the divisors are 4 and 8, and 8 and 4; and though the operations differ, yet the quotients are the same.

Multiplication and Division prove each other. In proving the first, if you divide the product by the multiplier, the quotient will be like the multiplicand; or, if the multiplicand, the quotient will be the same with the multiplier.

Example.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 345 \\
 24 \\
 \hline
 1380 \\
 690 \\
 \hline
 24 \) \ 8280 \ (345 \\
 \underline{72 \ .} \\
 108 \\
 \underline{96} \\
 120 \\
 \underline{120} \\
 (0)
 \end{array}$$

Or thus:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 345 \) \ 8280 \ (24 \\
 \underline{690 \ .} \\
 1380 \\
 \underline{1380} \\
 (0)
 \end{array}$$

Division may be proved by Division, thus: divide the dividend by the quotient, and the quotient will be your former divisor. But the most usual way of proving it is by multiplication. If you multiply the quotient by the divisor, the product will be equal to the dividend.

Observe, that when there is any remainder, it must be taken in, or added to the product; and that, as in the Multiplication of money, to have an answer, you Multiply the price by the quantity; so also, in division of money, you divide the price by the quantity, to have an answer.

COMMERCIAL BUSINESS.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

A BILL of Exchange is the transferring of a sum of money, made by the drawer, to him on whose account it is drawn, to be received of his correspondent in another place : the transfer is made for value received ; that is, for a similar sum given by the person on whose account the bill is drawn, to the drawer, in cash or effects.

To be as explicit as possible, a Bill of Exchange is a small note or writing, ordering the payment of a sum of money in one place, to some person assigned by the drawer, in consideration of the like value paid to him in another. The whole estate and effects of merchants often consist in Bills of Exchange.

Though a Bill of Exchange has not the formalities required by common law, such as seal, delivery, and witnesses, and therefore is not deemed a Specialty; yet it is of far higher consequence than any Specialty or Bond, on account of the great respect that is shewn to it, and the punctual and precise manner in which it is paid.

There are three things necessary to constitute a Bill of Exchange. 1st, That it be drawn in one city on another: 2^{dly}, That there be three persons concerned; the drawer, the presenter, or the person for whom it is drawn, and the acceptor, or he on whom it is drawn: 3^{dly}, That it make mention, that the value which the drawer has received, is
either

either in Bills of Exchange, in money, merchandize, or other effects, which are to be expressed; otherwise it is no Bill of Exchange.

When a Bill of Exchange is expressed to be *value in myself*, it is not supposed the drawer has received the sum; but the person for whom it is drawn stands debtor to him for it. When a Bill of Exchange bears, *for which sum I promise to furnish Bills of Exchange* to such a place, the person for whom the bill is drawn may compel him to give the bills, or return the money.

Bills of Exchange may be divided into inland and outland. Outland or foreign *bills* are made for money taken up abroad, and to be paid in England. Inland are for money taken up in one part of the kingdom, and to be repaid in another.

The holder of a *Bill* which has been accepted, must have it paid within three days after it is due, or protest it: and should the third day be a holiday, the protest must be made on the second.

What I have said here of Bills of Exchange, is also applicable to Promissory Notes, that are indorsed and negotiated from one person to another; except, indeed, that as in notes there is no drawer, there can be no protest for non-acceptance. In case, however, of non-payment, the indorsers have the same remedy, as upon Bills of Exchange, against the prior indorsers.

I think it necessary to make one more observation upon Bills of Exchange: If the person on whom an inland Bill of Exchange shall be drawn, refuses to accept it, the person to whom payable must cause such bill to be protested, as foreign bills; but no acceptance shall charge any person, unless the bill be under-written or indorsed; and if it be not so under-written or indorsed, no drawer shall be obliged to pay costs, damages, or interest thereon, unless protest be made for non-acceptance, and within fourteen days after the same be sent, or notice thereof given to the person from whom the bill is received, or left in writing at his usual place of residence. The bill being accepted, and not paid within three days after due, protest must be made, in writing, under a copy of the bill, by a notary public; or if no notary happen to reside in the place, then by any respectable inhabitant,

habitant, in the presence of two creditable witnesses, and notice given as aforesaid, to charge the drawer, &c. Though no protest is necessary, except the value be expressed to be received in such bill, and the bill be drawn for twenty pounds at least.

BILL PAYABLE AT SIGHT.

London, April 10, 179

AT sight pay to Mr. JOHN HOWELL, or order, the sum of Forty-eight Pounds, Nine Shillings, for value received of Mr. WILLIAM PRICE; and place it to account, as per advice of

Your humble Servant,

EDWARD JONES.

To Mr. MICHAEL MOORE,

Merchant, Liverpool.

N. B. A Bill at Sight is payable three days after the acceptor sees it.

Bristol, April 11, 179

Seven days after sight hereof pay to Mr. WILLIAM HODISON, or his Order, Thirty-two Pounds Six Shillings, for value received here of Mr. JOHN PHILLIPS, and place it to Account, as per advice from

Your humble Servant,

GEORGE BENFIELD.

To Mr. CHARLES SIMMONDS,

Grocer, Fleet Street,

London.

* * Observe that no instrument of writing must bear the date of the day of the month on which Sunday falls.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN BILL OF EXCHANGE.

London, April 11, 179

*For 600 Dollars, at
4s. 9d. per Dollar.*

AT usance pay this my first Bill by Exchange, to Mr. DAVID MERES, or order, Six Hundred Dollars, at 4s. 9d. per Dollar, for the value received of Mr. EDWARD THOMPSON, and pass it to account, as per advice from,

Sir,

Your humble Servant,
STEPHEN ROPER.

*To Mr. JOHN PARKER,
Merchant, Lisbon.*

ANOTHER.

Liverpool, April 12, 179

AT three usance pay this my first Bill by Exchange to Mr. JAMES WATSON, or order, Four Hundred and Eighty Dollars, for value received, and place it to account, as per advice from

Your's,
JOHN REYNOLDS.

*To Mess. ROBERT and CHARLES GREEN,
Merchants at Hamburgh.*

ANOTHER.

London, April 13, 179

AT double usance pay this my first Bill of Exchange to Mr. WILLIAM RANDALL, or order, Four Hundred-Piastres, for value received of Mr. BAPTISTE BONAVENTURE, and pass it to account, as per advice, from

Your's, &c.
HENRY HARROP.

*To Mr. FELIX FERDINAND,
Merchant, Leghorn.*

N. B. The term *Usance* signifies a determinate time fixed for the payment of Bills of Exchange, reckoned either from the day of the bills being accepted, or from the day of their date. They are thus called, because regulated by the usage and custom of the places whereon they are drawn. Bills are drawn at one or more Usances, (as above) either from sight, or from date. The term is longer or shorter, according to the different countries. In London, Usance is a calendar month; Double Usance, two months. In Spain, Usance is two months; at Venice, Genoa, and Leghorn, three months. At Hamburgh, Usance of Bills drawn from England, is two months after date.

Observe, that the acceptor of a Bill of Exchange becomes absolute debtor to the person to whom the Bill is payable for the contents thereof. The drawer of the Bill must give his correspondent a letter of advice that he has drawn on him for such a sum; else payment may be refused. A Bill is due the third day after the expiration of the time mentioned; and the person to whom the Bill is payable must demand the money the day it becomes due; and should the acceptor die before it be due, it must be demanded of the executor or administrator.

ENDORSEMENT.

THIS is a writing on the back of a Bill of Exchange by the proprietor or bearer, either thereby to transfer it to some other, or to render it payable to the order of some other, or else to serve for an acquittance or receipt. The person to whom it is first made payable may have occasion to pay it away; he therefore writes his name on the back of the Bill, which is his order, and gives it to another; and this second person having also occasion to pay it away, writes his name likewise under the name of the first, and delivers it to a third, who probably does the same; and these are all Endorsers; and the last holder of the Bill, if the Acceptor cannot pay it, may sue him, or either of the endorsers, or drawer, for the cash.

PROTEST

PROTEST.

THIS is a summons made by a Notary Public to a merchant, banker, &c to accept or discharge a Bill of Exchange drawn on him, after his having refused either to accept or pay it. It is called a Protest, because it contains a protestation, that the party will return the Bill, and even take up cash at interest; and charge all costs, damages, carriage, and re-carriage on the refuser.

There are two kinds of Protests; the one, for want of acceptance; the other, for want of payment. The first must be made by the bearer of the bill at the time of presenting it, in case the person on whom it is drawn refuses to accept it for the time, or the sum, there expressed. The latter is made as the Bill falls due, whether it has been accepted or not.

DISCOUNT.

AN allowance made on a Bill of Exchange, or any other debt not due, in order to induce the acceptor or debtor to advance the money, is called a Discount. It is used also among merchants, when they buy things on trust, with a condition, that the seller shall discount so much *per Cent.* for each payment made before the expiration of the time.

BILL OF LADING.

THIS is an instrument signed by the master of a ship, acknowledging the receipt of a merchant's goods, and obliging himself to deliver them, at the place to which they are consigned, in good condition. Of such Bills there are usually three; the merchant keeps the first; the second is sent to the factor to whom the goods are consigned; and the third is kept by the master of the ship.

BILL OF SALE.

A Bill of Sale is when a person, wanting a sum of money, delivers goods as a security to the lender, to whom he gives this Bill, empowering him to sell the said goods, in case the sum borrowed is not repaid with interest, at the time appointed. The following is the form:

Know all Men by these Presents, that I, EDWARD HARRIS, Gent. of *Shadwell*, for and in consideration of the sum of Sixty Pounds to me in hand paid, at and before the sealing and delivery hereof, by WILLIAM SMITH, of *Stoke-Newington*, the receipt whereof I do hereby acknowledge, have bargained and sold, and by these presents do bargain and sell unto the said WILLIAM SMITH, all the goods, household stuffs, and implements of household, and all other goods whatever, mentioned in the schedule hereunto annexed, now remaining and being in *Shadwell*, to have and to hold all, and singular the goods, household stuffs, and implements of household, and every of them, by these presents, bargained and sold unto the said WILLIAM SMITH, his executors, administrators, and assigns for ever. And I, the said EDWARDS HARRIS, for myself, my executors, and administrators, all and singular of the said goods, unto the said WILLIAM SMITH, his executors, and administrators, against me, the said EDWARD HARRIS, my executors, administrators, and assigns, and against all and every other person and persons whatsoever, shall and will warrant, and for ever defend, by these presents: of which goods I, the said EDWARD HARRIS, have put the said WILLIAM SMITH in full possession, by delivering him one silver tankard, &c. at the sealing hereof. In witness whereof I have hereunto put my hand and seal this twentieth day of May, in the Year of our Lord, One Thousand Seven Hundred, &c.

Signed, sealed, and
delivered in the presence
of us,

GEORGE BUFOY.
MARK ELLIS.

BILL

BILL OF DEBT.

THIS is an acknowledgment of a sum due from one person to another, in the following form: "Know all men by these presents, that I, PETER PENNY, of *Cheapside*, Hosier, do owe and am indebted to NICHOLAS NOBLE, of Snow-hill, Shoe-maker, the sum of Thirty-six Pounds of lawful money of Great Britain; which said sum I promise to pay unto the said NICHOLAS NOBLE, his executors, administrators, or assigns, on or before the sixth day of June next ensuing date hereof. Witness my hand and seal this eleventh day of April, 179

PETER PENNY.

Sealed and delivered
in presence of us,

THOMAS HART,
EDWARD RUSSELL."

BILL OF SECURITY

DENOTES a security for money under the hand and sometimes seal of the debtor, without any condition or forfeiture in case of non-performance; in which it differs from a Bond or Obligation. It has been commonly stiled a writing wherein one man binds himself to pay to another a sum of money on a future day, or on demand, according to the agreement of the parties at the time when it is drawn, and the dealing between them.

BILL OF PENALTY.

THIS is an acknowledgment of a sum of money due from one person to another, and a Bond for payment. The following is the form:

Know all Men by these Presents, that I, JOHN FREEMAN, of Hampstead, in the County of Middlesex, Grocer, do acknowledge myself indebted to HENRY HARPER, Gent.

of Highgate, in the County aforesaid, in the sum of Fifty Pounds of good and lawful money of Great Britain, to be paid unto the said HENRY HARPER, or his heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns, in or upon the 20th day of June next ensuing the date hereof, without fraud or further delay: for and in consideration of which payment well and truly to be made and done, I bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, in the penal sum of Fifty Pounds, of the like lawful money, firmly by these Presents. In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal this 16th day of April, 179 in the Year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord King George III. and in the Year of our Lord 179

JOHN FREEMAN.

Signed, sealed, and delivered,
in the presence of

SAMUEL LEWIS,
JAMES MARTIN.

BONDS.

THERE are Bonds, and Counter Bonds, or Counter-Securities. The Counter-Bond is a Bond given to save a person harmless who has given his Bond for another. Hence the term, Counter-Bond, or Counter-Security.

The following is the form of a Bond from one person to another :

Know all Men by these Presents, that I, MICHAEL MILLS, of the Parish of St. Bride, in the City of London, Gentleman, am held and firmly bound to FRANCIS NICHOLS, of the said City of London, Esq. in the penal sum of Two Hundred Pounds of good and lawful money of Great Britain, to be paid to the said FRANCIS NICHOLS, or to his certain attorney, his executors, administrators, or assigns; for the true payment whereof, I bind myself, my heirs, executors, and

and administrators, firmly by these Presents, sealed with my seal. Dated this 17th day of April, 179 in the Year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord George the Third, by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, and in the Year of our Lord, &c.

The condition of this Obligation is such, that if the above bounden **MICHAEL MILLS**, his heirs, executors, or administrators, do well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, to the above-named **FRANCIS NICHOLS**, his executors, administrators, or assigns, the full Sum of One Hundred Pounds, of good and lawful money of Great Britain, on the 24th day of July next ensuing the date hereof, with lawful interest; then this Obligation to be void, or else to remain in full force.

MICHAEL MILLS.

Sealed and delivered in the
presence of

JOHN ADAMS,
JAMES BARNARD.

Note. When a Bond is given, double the sum of the value received is mentioned in the obligatory part, and the real sum meant to be secured is inserted in the condition.

OBLIGATIONS.

AN Obligation denotes simply a Bond, containing a penalty, with a condition annexed, for the payment of money at a certain time, or for performance of covenants, &c. The following is the form:

Know all Men by these Presents, that I, **ANTHONY HALL**, of the Parish of St. Sepulchre, in the City of London; Draper, am holden and firmly do stand bound unto **JACOB MAURICE**, of the Parish of Islington, in the County of Middlesex, Gentleman, in the sum of Sixty-eight Pounds of good and lawful

lawful money of Great Britain, and to be paid unto him, the said JACOB MAURICE, his certain attorney, executors, administrators, or assigns, to them, or either of them; to the which payment, well and truly to be made, I do hereby bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, firmly by these Presents. Sealed with my seal. Dated this 18th day of _____ in the _____ Year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord George III. King of Great Britain, France and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, and in the Year of our Lord 179 _____

NOTES.

A NOTE is a short writing about some kind of business. We say a Promissory Note, a Note under hand, &c. If signed, whereby the person who signs shall promise to pay to any other person, or order, any sum of money, the sum specified in such Note shall be due and payable to the person to whom made, and the Note shall be assignable over, as an Inland Bill of Exchange; whereupon the person to whom such Note is payable, or assigned, may maintain an action for the same against the person who signed, or any who indorsed the Note, as in the cases of Inland Bills, and recover damages and costs of suits.

By 19 Geo. III. cap. 30. it is enacted, that all Promissory or other Notes, Bills of Exchange, or Draughts, or Undertakings in Writing, being negotiable or transferable, for the payment of twenty shillings, or above that sum, and less than five pounds, or on which twenty shillings or above, and less than five pounds shall remain undischarged, shall specify the names and places of abode of the persons respectively to whom, or to whose order, the same shall be made payable; and shall bear date before or at the time of drawing or issuing thereof, but not in any day subsequent thereto, and shall be made payable within twenty-one days next after the day of the date thereof, and shall not be transferable or negotiable after the time thereby limited for payment; and every indorsement thereon shall be made before the expiration

tion of that time, and shall bear date at or not before the time of making thereof, and shall specify the name and place of abode of the person to whom or to whose order the money is to be paid; otherwise such Note, Bill, or Draught, or Undertaking, shall be void. The publishing, uttering, or negotiating Notes, Bills of Exchange, Draughts, or Undertakings, contrary to this act, is prohibited under the penalty of forfeiture not exceeding twenty pounds, nor less than five pounds.

NOTES OF HAND. (ONE SIGNATURE.)

I Promise to pay to Mr. JOHN GREENWOOD, or bearer, on the 4th day of May, Ten Pounds Ten Shillings for value received. Witness my hand this 21st day of April, 179

DANIEL DAVIS.

£10 10 0

April 20, 179

I Promise to pay to the Hon. the Directors of the East India Company, or bearer, on demand, Six Hundred Pounds for SAMUEL FREEMAN, Esq.

CHARLES BATEMAN.

£600 0 0

April

April 21, 179

I Promise to pay to Mess. JENKINS, WARD, and Co.
One Hundred and Twenty Pounds on demand.

JOHN MASON.

£120 0 0

*** Mr. MASON, to render this Note negociable, must
endorse his name on the back, as must every person through
whose hands it goes.

NOTE OF HAND. (TWO SIGNATURES.)

WE, or either of us, promise to pay to Mr. HENRY SAL-
TER, or his order, Twenty-four Pounds Ten Shillings, on
demand, for value received. Witness our hands this 23d day
of April, 179

THOMAS KING.
JOSEPH BROWN.

£24 10 0

Witness

RICHARD REEVES.

RECEIPTS.

A Receipt is an acquittance or discharge ; or an act where-
by it appears that a thing has been paid off or acquitted. I
shall give a few examples; but must first observe, that the
sum received must be always expressed in words.

RECEIVED this 22d day of May, 179
of Mr. JAMES WILLIS, Twelve Pounds Four-
teen Shillings, in part, for Muslins sold to
him the 6th instant.

£. s. d.
12 14 0

London

London, April 23, 179

RECEIVED of Mr. JOHN WILSON Ten } £. s. d.
 Pounds Ten Shillings and Sixpence, in full pay- } 10 10 6
 ment, by me

HENRY HEWSON.

RECEIVED of the Worshipful Company of } £. s. d.
 Stationers this 24th day of May, 179 Two } 215 0 0
 Hundred and Fifteen Pounds, in full, for my
 brother, THOMAS HILL.

JOHN HILL.

RECEIVED the 24th of May, 179 of } £. s. d.
 Messrs. COLLYER, SON, and COMPANY, Sixty- } 68 11 9
 eight Pounds Eleven Shillings and Ninepence,
 by the order and for the account of GEORGE
 SYLVESTER, Esq. per me

CHARLES GREENALL.

* * It is scarce necessary to say, that all instruments of writing must be on stamped paper.

CERTIFICATES

ARE Testimonies given in writing, to assure and notify the truth of any thing. A Certificate of Costs relates to the case of a plaintiff, who in an action of trespass, is allowed no more costs than damages, when the jury give less damages than forty shillings, unless the judge certify that the freehold or title of the land came chiefly in question. To this rule there are two exceptions, both grounded on statutes; the one gives the plaintiffs full costs, if the judge certify that the

the trespass was wilful and malicious; and the other gives full costs against any inferior tradesman, apprentice, or other person convicted of a trespass in hunting, hawking, or fowling upon another person's land.

A Certificate of Bankrupt is a declaration in favour of him, signed by four parts in five of his creditors, (those under 20l. excepted) and authenticated under the hands and seals of the commissioners, and by them transmitted to the Lord Chancellor; in consequence of which the bankrupt becomes entitled to a decent allowance out of his effects for his future maintenance.

A Certificate of the Poor is an acknowledgment from the parish, to which they belong, of their being parishioners; and this prevents their removal till they become actually chargeable.

DEBENTURE

IS a Certificate signed by the Officers of the Customs, which entitles a trader to the receipt of a bounty or drawback. The forms of Debentures vary according to the merchandize exported. The following will give the reader an idea of them.

" JOHN ROBSON, natural born, did on, &c. make an entry with us of three thousand ells of linen in the Penelope, Captain WILLIAM RHODES, for Jamaica; the subsidy, &c. was paid inwards by, &c. as appears by Certificate of the Collector Inwards: and for farther manifestation of his just dealing therein, he hath also taken oath before us of the same.

*Custom House, London,
30th April, 179 ."*

All kinds of Debentures, before delivered or paid to the exporters, are entered into a separate book kept for that purpose by the Collector or Comptroller of the Customs.

LETTER

LETTER OF ATTORNEY.

THIS is a writing which authorises an Attorney to do some legal act in our stead, such as the receiving of debts, &c. The nature of this instrument is to give the Attorney full power and authority to accomplish the act intended to be performed. The following is the form :

Know all Men by these Presents, that I, SAMUEL TURNER, of the parish of St. George, in the county of Middlesex, Gentleman, (for divers considerations and good causes me hereunto moving) have made, ordained, constituted, and appointed, and by these presents do make, ordain, constitute, and appoint, my trusty friend, JAMES MORRIS, of London, Gentleman, my true and lawful Attorney, for me, in my name, and to my use, to ask, demand, recover, or receive, of and from WALTER WATSON, of Chelsea, in the said County, the sum of Fifty Pounds; giving, and by these presents granting, to my said Attorney, my sole and full power and authority to take, pursue, and follow such legal courses for the recovery, receiving, and obtaining of the same, as I myself might or could do, were I personally present, and upon the receipt of the same acquittances, and other sufficient discharges, for me, and in my name, to make, sign, seal, and deliver; as also one more Attorney, or Attornies under him, to substitute or appoint, and again at his pleasure to revoke; and further to do, perform, and finish for me, and in my name, all and singular thing and things, which shall or may be necessary, and entirely as I, the said SAMUEL TURNER, in my own person, ought or could do in and about the same; ratifying, allowing, and confirming whatsoever my said Attorney shall lawfully do, or cause to be done, in and about the execution of the premises, by virtue of these presents: in witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and seal, the
 Year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord George III. by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, and so forth; and in the Year of our Lord

SAMUEL TURNER.

Signed, sealed, and
 delivered in the presence
 of us, JOHN WILSON
 THOMAS JONES.

K

LETTER

LETTER OF CREDIT

IS given to persons whom a merchant, &c. can trust, to take money of his correspondent abroad, in case he should happen to want it.

LETTER OF LICENCE

IS a writing granted to a person who has failed in trade, signed and sealed by his Creditors; which Letter usually gives a longer time for payment.

LETTER MISSIVE

IS sent to a Peer who is a defendant in the Court of Chancery, to request his appearance. Should he neglect to appear, he may be served with a Subpoena; and should he still continue in contempt, a Sequestration may be immediately issued against his lands and goods.

DEBT.

THE legal acceptation of the term Debt is money due by an express agreement, as by bargain, bill, bond, or note: the non-payment of which is an injury, for which the proper remedy is by action of Debt, to compel the performance of the contract, and recover the sum due.

ARREST

IS the apprehending of a person, in execution of the command of some Court, or Officer of Justice. The Officer to whom a Warrant is delivered, ought with all speed and secrecy to endeavour to find out the party, and execute the Warrant

Warrant. It is an offence of the highest nature to oppose any one who lawfully endeavours to arrest another, either for felony or treason: the opposer to an Arrest for felony, is accessory to the crime; and the opposer to an Arrest for treason, if he knows the party to be guilty, is guilty also of the treason. In criminal cases a person may be apprehended and restrained of his liberty not only by process out of some court, or warrant from a magistrate, but by a constable, watchman, or private person, without any warrant or precept. And any person who is present when a felony is committed, or a wound dangerously given, is bound to endeavour to apprehend the offender, on pain of fine and imprisonment for neglect. Every private person is also bound to assist an officer demanding his help in the apprehension of a felon, or the suppression of an affray.

The King cannot arrest any man for suspicion of treason or felony, as his subjects can; because if he does wrong, the party cannot have action against him. Doors may be broke open to arrest persons who have committed treason or felony.

With regard to arrest for debt, no persons can be arrested for either debt or trespass, or other cause of action, but by virtue of a precept from some court. When he is legally stopped, and restrained of his liberty, for debt, he is said to be arrested, or put under an arrest; which is the beginning of imprisonment.

If a bailiff lays hold of a person by the hand, whom he has a warrant to arrest, as he holds it out at the window, this is such a taking of him, that the bailiff may justify the breaking open of the house to carry him away.

Though in cases of treason and felony, doors may be broke open, yet they must not in civil cases, except it be in pursuit of one arrested, or where a house is recovered by real action, to deliver possession to the person recovering. An action of trespass lies for breaking open a house to make arrest in a civil action: yet, if it should appear that a bailiff finds an outer door open, he (a great law authority says) may open an inner one to make an Arrest. An Arrest is as lawful in the night, as in the day. But no person can be arrested on a Sunday, except for a breach of the peace, or for treason or felony: he, however, may be re-arrested on a Sunday, if he escape the day before.

To move or plead in Arrest of Judgment, is to shew cause why judgment should be stayed, though there be a verdict in the cause. Judgment may be arrested for good cause in criminal cases as well as in civil, if the Indictment be insufficient. Four days are allowed to move in Arrest of Judgment.

IMPRISONMENT

IS the state of a person restrained of his liberty, and extends not only to a gaol, but the being held under proper authority in the street. Every warrant of commitment for imprisoning a person ought to run, "till delivered by due course of law," and not "until further order." Persons may be discharged from their imprisonment in any case bailable.

ESCAPE

IS either voluntary or negligent; voluntary, as when one person arrests another for felony, or other crime, and afterwards lets him go; in which escape, the party who permits it, is by law to suffer punishment as if guilty of the fault committed by the person who escapes, be it felony, treason, or trespass, after the original delinquent is actually found guilty or convicted. Negligent escape is, when a person is arrested, and afterwards escapes against the will of him who arrested him; and is not pursued, and taken again, before the party pursued has lost sight of him. Any keeper of a prison, who connives at an escape, forfeits five hundred pounds.

If any person in custody in the King's Bench, or Fleet Prison, in execution, or on Mesne Process, &c. [Mesne Process is such process as intervenes between the beginning and end of a suit] go at large, on oath thereof before a Judge of the Court where the action was brought, an Escape Warrant

Warrant is granted, directed to all sheriffs, &c. throughout England, to retake the prisoner, and commit him to gaol when taken, there to remain till the debt be paid. A person may be taken by a Search-warrant on a Sunday, as well as on any other day.

BAIL

IS the setting at liberty a person arrested; or imprisoned upon an action, under sureties taken for his appearance at a future time. Common Bail is given in actions of small injury; but Special in cases of greater moment. It was enacted a few years ago, on account of the poor, that no persons should be held to bail in any action brought for less than ten pounds; and this is observed in Writs issued from the Courts of Westminster Hall. But the Marshal's Court still arrests and holds to bail in actions for sums exceeding two pounds.

In civil cases every defendant is bailable; but, in criminal, not so.

To refuse Bail to a party offering it, where the party ought to be bailed, is a misdemeanour punishable not only by the suit of the party, but also by indictment; and admitting Bail where it ought not, is punishable by the Judges of Assize by fine; or punishable as a negligent escape at common law. If the keeper of a prison bail any one not bailable, he shall lose his office; if another Officer, he shall have three years imprisonment, and make fine at the King's pleasure. A Surry Justice of Peace committed a man on suspicion of stealing a mare, and bound over the owner to prosecute; afterwards he admitted the party to bail. The prosecutor appeared at the Assize, and found a bill, but the party accused did not appear: the Court, therefore, granted an information against the Justice, declaring he should not have bailed the party.

By the ancient Common Law, before and since the Conquest, all felonies were bailable, till murder was excepted by statute. The power of bailing in treason, and divers

instances of felony, has been also taken away by statute. No Justice of Peace can bail, upon accusation of treason, of murder, or manslaughter, if the person be clearly the slayer, or an indictment be found against him; nor of felony, against those who have broken prison. Outlawed persons, and those who have abjured the realm, approvers, and persons accused by them, persons in the fact of felony, those setting fire to houses, and excommunicated persons, are also inadmissible to Bail. Those to be admitted to Bail, on offering sufficient security, must be persons of good fame, charged merely with suspicion of manslaughter, or inferior homicide. Here, however, it is necessary to quote an authority, which says, "It is agreed that the Court of King's Bench, (or any Judge thereof in time of vacation) may bail for any crime whatsoever, be it treason, murder, or any other offence, according to the circumstances of the case; such persons only excepted, who are committed by either House of Parliament during the Session, or such as are committed for contempt by any of the King's superior Courts of Justice."

It is declared expressly by statute, that excessive Bail ought not to be required; though it is left with the Courts to determine what Bail is excessive. If insufficient Bail be taken by the magistrate, he is liable to be fined, should the criminal not appear.

Bail is either common or special. Common Bail is that given in actions of small prejudice, or slight proof; in which cases any nominal sureties are taken, as John Doe, and Richard Roe; this being no other than a form of appearance. Special Bail is given in cases of higher importance, where it is required that the sureties be subsidy-men at least, and according to the value of the matter in question.

Bail to the action succeeds the return of the writ, or the appearance of the person bailed. The persons putting in this Bail, must be at least two in number, and enter into a recognizance, whereby they do jointly and severally undertake, that if the defendant be condemned in the action, he shall pay costs and condemnation, or render himself a prisoner, or that they will pay it for him. Bail Bond is a Bond or Obligation entered into by one or more sureties, upon putting in Bail to the Sheriff, insuring the defendant's appearance

pearance at the return of the Writ. And Bail in Error expresses the Bail given by a person who brings a Writ of Error after verdict, or who is Plaintiff in Error.

The Law (if Bail cannot be otherwise obtained) has provided a remedy in most cases by the Habeas Corpus Act, which removes a person and cause from one prison and court to another. This is a famous statute 31 Car. II. and which has been stiled the bulwark of English Liberty, and second Magna Charta. The Writ of Habeas Corpus was ordained, by the Common Law, as a remedy for such as were unjustly imprisoned to be set at liberty; but several abuses getting into the mode of granting it, it became necessary to obviate them in future by modern statutes. Accordingly, by the Petition of Right, 3 Car. I. it is enacted, that no freeman shall be imprisoned or detained without cause shewn, to which he may make answer according to law. And by 16 Car. I. cap. 10. if any person be restrained of his liberty by order or decree of any illegal court, or by command of the King's Majesty in person, or by warrant of the Council Board, or of any of the Privy Council, he shall, upon demand of his counsel, have a Writ of Habeas Corpus, to bring his body before the Court of King's Bench or Common Pleas; who shall determine whether the cause of his commitment be just, and thereupon do as to justice shall belong.

DISTRESS

IS a compulsion recurred to in certain real actions for bringing a man to appear in Court, or to pay rent, or other duty denied: if a tenant of lands or tenements shall fraudulently carry away his goods, the landlord may, within thirty days, distrain them wherever they shall be found: but the goods cannot be distrained, if sold for a valuable consideration before seizure to any person not privy to the fraud. Tenants committing such fraud, or others assisting, forfeit double the value of the goods carried off, to be recovered by action of debt, &c. and where they exceed not fifty pounds value, the landlord may exhibit a complaint before two Justices of the Peace, who must examine the fact, and enquire into the value of

of the goods, and thereupon order the offender to pay double value, leviabie by distress and sale: or, for want thereof, commit the offender to the house of correction for six months. Landlords or their agents may, with the assistance of a constable, seize any goods fraudulently concealed in any house, out-house, &c. Distress personal is made by distraining a man's moveable goods, and seizing the profits of his lands and tenements from the date of the Writ, for the defendant's contempt in not appearing to an action brought against him when he was summoned or attached. Distress real is made on immoveable goods.

REPLEVIN

IS a remedy granted on a Distress; being a re-deliverance of the goods distrained to the first possessor, on security of pledges given by him to try the right with the distrainer, and answer him in the course of law.

ARBITRATION

IS the referring a cause or quarrel to the decision of one or more indifferent persons, under the denomination of Arbiters or Arbitrators; and if those cannot agree, a third is added, called an Umpire, in whose decision both sides are bound to acquiesce.

WRIT

IS a precept of the King in writing, under seal, issuing out of some court to the sheriff or other person, whereby any thing is commanded to be done touching a suit or action, or giving commission to have it done.

An Original Writ is sent out of the High Court of Chancery, to summon the defendant in a personal, or tenant in a real action, either before the suit begins, or to begin the suit thereby.

thereby. In the Court of King's Bench, the usual Original Writ in actions, is for action of trespass upon the case; and this Court does not issue Originals in actions of debt, covenant, or account, &c. Whereas the Court of Common Pleas proceeds by Original in all kinds of actions; but, to arrest and sue a party to outlawry, it is made use of by both Courts.

A Judicial Writ is sent by order of the Court where the cause depends, on emergent occasions, after the suit begins.

A Personal Writ relates to goods, chattels, or personal injuries.

A Writ of Privilege is that which a privileged person brings to the Court for his exemption, on account of some privilege he enjoys. But the most common Writs are in debt, trespass, account, covenant, &c. Writs may be renewed every term, till a defendant be arrested; and should there be several persons in one, (for four defendants may be in one writ,) there must be several Warrants from the Sheriff to execute the same. Attachment lies against a Sheriff for non-execution of a Writ, or any oppressive measure, or corrupt practice. All Writs must be returned and filed in due time, in order to avoid a fee or penalty in the Court of Common Pleas, where they are received and put upon files.

WARRANT

IS a precept under the hand and seal of an officer to bring an offender before the person granting it. Should a Justice see a breach of the peace, or a felony, committed in his presence, he may in his own person apprehend the felon; and so he may, by word, command any person to apprehend him; and such command is a good Warrant, without writing: but if the same be done in his absence, he must issue his Warrant in writing. The Warrant may issue to bring the party before the Justice who granted it specially, and then the officer is bound to bring him before that justice; but if it be to bring him before any Justice, the officer may bring him before any Justice of the county he thinks fit. War-
rants

rants may be granted in extraordinary cases by the Secretaries of State, or Privy Council; and Justices may grant them in any cases where they have a jurisdiction over the offence, in order to oblige the person accused to appear before them: and this extends to treason, felony, and all breaches of the peace, as well as to all offences which they have a power to punish by statute.

Upon a Warrant being received by an officer, he is bound to execute it, so far as the jurisdiction of the magistrate and of himself extends. The Warrant of a Justice in one county must be signed (or backed, as usually termed) in another, before it can be executed there. Warrants from the chief or other justice of the Court of King's Bench, are tested or dated England, and not any particular county, and extend all over the kingdom.

General Warrants are used to apprehend all persons suspected, without naming particularly, or describing any person in special. These prevailed in the Secretaries Office ever since the Restoration, grounded on some clauses in the acts for regulating the Press, of issuing General Warrants to take up (without naming any person in particular) the authors, printers, and publishers of such seditious or obscene libels as were specified in the Warrant. In 1763, however, the validity of such Warrant being disputed, it was judged by the Court of King's Bench to be void; and afterwards the issuing of it was declared illegal by a vote of the House of Commons.

A Search Warrant is issued by justices for searching any suspected place for stolen effects, and is a kind of General Warrant. If a complaint be made, and oath made of goods stolen, and the goods are suspected to be in any particular house, a Justice may (on proper and good cause of suspicion being exhibited) grant a Warrant to search the suspected place mentioned in his Warrant, and to attach the goods, and the party in whose custody they are found, who must be brought before him, or some other justice, to give an account how he or they came by them, and to abide such order as to the law shall belong.

SUBPŒNA

IS a writ summoning persons to appear as witnesses in trials. A competent witness, served with a writ of Subpœna, is bound to appear, on pain of forfeiting one hundred pounds. No person, however, need appear, unless his or her reasonable expences be tendered: even at the place of trial, evidence may be refused to be given, unless expences are defrayed, except the person or persons subpœnaed reside within the bills of mortality, and are to give evidence within the same.

Subpœna is also a writ, whereby any person, under the degree of peerage, is called to appear in Chancery, in cases where the Common Law has made no provision.

SUMMONS

IS a citing or calling a person to any court to answer a complaint, or give in evidence. The course and practice of the Courts of Conscience in London, in Southwark, Westminster, &c. are by Summons; to which, if the party appear, the commissioners proceed summarily; examining both parties, or their witnesses, and as they see cause, give judgment.

ATTACHMENT

IS the apprehending of a person, to bring him to answer the action of the plaintiff. The terms Attachment and Distress are frequently confounded, though there is a very wide difference between them; an Attachment does not reach lands; but a Distress does: and a Distress does not touch the body; but an Attachment does.

EXECUTION

IS the last performance of an act; as of a Writ, a Judgment, or the like. There are two kinds of executions, the one

one absolutely final, the other only tending to an end. The final is that which makes money of the defendant's goods, and delivers them to the plaintiff; and this ends the suit. By the other, which is not final, the body of the party is taken, and he is imprisoned till the plaintiff is satisfied.

GENERAL RELEASE.

THIS is an instrument by which titles, actions, entries, &c. are sometimes transferred, sometimes abridged, and sometimes wholly extinguished and annulled. The following is the form of one:

Know all Men by these Presents, that I, WILLIAM WAKEFIELD, of Chelsea, in the County of Middlesex, Victualler, have released and for ever quit claim to JOHN BENNET, of the County aforesaid, Wheel-wright, his heirs, executors, and administrators, of all, and all manner of action and actions, suits, bills, bonds, writings, debts, dues, duties, accounts, sum or sums of money, leases, mortgages, judgments, by confession or otherwise obtained, executions, extents, controversies, trespasses, damages, and demands whatsoever, which by law or equity, or otherwise soever, I, the said WILLIAM WAKEFIELD, against the said JOHN BENNET ever had, and which I, my heirs, executors, or administrators, shall or may claim, challenge, or demand, for or by reason, means, or colour of any matter, cause, or thing whatsoever, to the day of the date of these Presents. In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and seal this 28th day of May, 179

WILLIAM WAKEFIELD.

DEED OF GIFT.

THIS is an instrument of a very important nature, with regard to property. The following is the form:

"To all people to whom these Presents shall come, I, JOHN MILLER, do send greeting. Know ye, that I, the said

said JOHN MILLER, of the Parish of St. Martin in the Fields, in the County of Middlesex, Surgeon, for and in consideration of the love and affection I bear towards my dear Sister, BONA BARBARA MILLER, of the same Parish and County, have given and granted, and by these Presents do freely give and grant unto the said BONA BARBARA MILLER, her heirs, executors, or administrators, all and singular my goods and chattels, now being in my dwelling-house, in the Parish aforesaid; of which these Presents I have delivered her, the said BONA BARBARA MILLER, an inventory signed with my own hand, and bearing even date, to have and to hold all the said goods and chattels in the said premises or dwelling-house, to her the said BONA BARBARA MILLER, her heirs, executors, or administrators, from henceforth, as her and their proper goods and chattels absolutely without any manner of condition. In witness whereof I have hereunto put my hand and seal this 30th day of May, 179

JOHN MILLER."

Signed, sealed, and delivered in
the presence of

TIMOTHY COLE,
BENJAMIN HOARE.

* * * A Deed of Gift extends to land that is not entailed, as well as to houses, corn, and cattle.

COVENANT

IS the consent or agreement of two or more parties, to do or perform something; as follows:

Agreement between JOHN WOOD and THOMAS GOOD.

The said JOHN WOOD, for himself, his heirs, executors, or administrators, doth hereby agree to take of the said THOMAS GOOD, a house, No. 22, Mary-le-Bone Street, and late in the tenure or occupation of GEORGE GRUB, for one year certain, at the yearly rent of thirty pounds, to be paid quarterly, as soon as the said rent becomes due. The said

L

JOHN

JOHN GOOD further agrees to commence tenant at Lady-day next, to pay all taxes whatever, (land as well as other assessments,) and not to quit the said house after the term of one year agreed upon, without giving six months notice in writing. The said JOHN GOOD also agrees to leave all laths, bolts, windows, shutters, and other fixtures complete, and in decent repair, as they are at present, and not to suffer any business or employment to be carried on that may be a nuisance or prejudice to the neighbourhood, or that may be contrary to the original lease, by which the premises are held. It is also hereby understood, that the said JOHN WOOD agrees to pay to the said THOMAS GOOD two quarters rent, over and above what may be due at the time of his quitting the said house, if such notice as above mentioned be not given as aforesaid, and also that such windows as may be broken while he keeps possession of the said house, shall be properly repaired or amended at his own cost and charge.

And the said THOMAS GOOD hereby agrees to accept of the said JOHN WOOD as a tenant on the above terms and conditions, reserving for himself the right of landlord to give six months warning to tenant to quit possession of the said house, if such a step should ever be deemed necessary. In consequence of which, the above parties have respectively signed this memorandum of agreement and the counterpart, this 6th day of May, 179

JOHN WOOD,
THOMAS GOOD.

* * * The same form of Covenant will serve for any other agreement or bargain made, using the proper terms applicable to such agreement or bargain.

WILL. TESTAMENT.

MANY people erroneously think that a Will must be indispensibly made by an attorney; whereas, where personal property is only bequeathed, every testator may be his own lawyer. Wills that devise no land, need no witness. A testament

tament of chattels, in the testator's own hand, even though there be no name to it, nor witnesses, is good, if the handwriting can be proved. For this information I am indebted to an excellent book entitled the **BANK MIRROR, or A GUIDE TO THE FUNDS**; which, exclusive of instructions for buying and selling **STOCK**, contains a variety of very useful matter. However, with submission to the author, I think it a safer way, as leaving less in the breast of the ecclesiastical judge, to have a will signed by the testator, and properly witnessed.

Every testament is not a will, though every will is a testament: a will is, strictly, limited to land, and a testament only to chattels: the words, however, are in common used indiscriminately.

Wills are of two sorts; the one in writing, the other depending on oral evidence, afterwards reduced to writing.

Lunatics, idiots, or persons grown childish by age, are incapable, by their mental imbecility, of making Wills; neither will the bequest of a suicide stand good, if he bequeath goods and chattels; but he may devise lands. Outlaws are incapable of making wills while their outlawry subsists.

The Romans used to set aside wills, if they excluded, without assigning some good reason, any child of the testator; but if the child had a legacy, however small, it was considered as a proof that the deceased had not lost his reason, and therefore the will was good. Hence, it is presumed, has arisen that gross error, the necessity of leaving an heir a shilling, or, as vulgarly expressed, "cutting him off with a shilling," in order to disinherit him.

The power of making wills in England is coeval with the first rudiments of the law; not however that it originally extended to the whole of a man's personal estate; for there was a writ lay for the wife against the executors denying her the third part of her husband's effects, after his debts and funeral expences were paid; and such, if I mistake not, is the law of Scotland at this day.

As no will can possibly have any effect till the decease of the testator, therefore if there be many wills, the last overthrows all the rest; yet, the republication of a former will, revokes one of a later date, and re-establishes the first.

A SHORT WILL IN LEGAL FORM.

IN the name of God, amen. The 27th day of May 179 ,
 I, **GEORGE HOOPER**, of the City of Westminster, Yeoman,
 being of perfect mind and memory, do make and ordain this
 my last Will and Testament: that is to say, principally and
 first of all, I give and recommend my soul into the hands of
 Almighty God, who gave it, and my body I recommend to
 the earth, to be buried in decent Christian burial, at the dis-
 cretion of my executors. And as touching such worldly
 estate wherewith it hath pleased God to bless me in this
 life, I give, demise, and dispose of the same in the follow-
 ing manner:

First, I give and bequeath to **JANE HOOPER**, my dearly
 beloved wife, the sum of Six-hundred pounds, of lawful
 money of England, to be raised or levied out of my estate,
 together with all my household goods, debts due to me, and
 moveable effects.

I bequeath also to my well beloved son, **BENEDICT HOOPER**,
 whom likewise I constitute, make, and ordain my sole Ex-
 ecutor of this my last Will and Testament, all and singular my
 lands, messuages, and tenaments, by him freely to be possessed
 and enjoyed. And I do hereby utterly disallow, revoke, and
 disanul all and every other former Testaments, Wills, Lega-
 cies, Bequests, and Executors, by me in any way before
 named, willed, and bequeathed; ratifying and confirming
 this, and no other, to be my last Will and Testament. In
 witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and seal the
 day and year above written.

GEORGE HOOPER.

Signed, sealed, published,
 pronounced, and declar-
 ed, by the said **GEORGE
 HOOPER**, as his last Will
 and Testament, in the pre-
 sence of us,

**PETER PREEDY.
 AARON PHIPPS.
 DAVID GOWER.**

ANOTHER

ANOTHER.

THIS is the last will and testament of me JOEL SPRIGG, of Sprigg-hall, in the county of Salop, made this 28th day of May 179 . I bequeath all my money, lying in an old trunk in the inner cellar, up in a corner by the bottle-rack, (except forty pounds) to my sister DEBORAH SPRIGG, of Sprigg-hall aforesaid. I bequeath also to the said DEBORAH SPRIGG all my household furniture, and likewise all my wearing apparel, except my breeches and boots, which (with the forty pounds excepted as above) I bequeath to honest JOHN CRUMP, the Miller. To my cousin MARY SPRIGG, of Sprigg Castle, near Sprigg-Hall, in the said county of Salop, I bequeath my pardon of all her insults to me: And to my cousin BENJAMIN SPRIGG, of Sprigg Grove, in the County of Salop aforesaid, I bequeath my hearty forgiveness of his breaking my head last summer at Newmarket. And now taking a peep into the world of politics, before I enter the world of immortality, I bequeath to his Majesty's ministers my advice to endeavour to restore peace to my country as soon as possible. In witness whereof I hereunto set my hand and seal this 28th day of May, as above written.

JOEL SPRIGG.

Scaled, published, and declared
by the above-named Joel
Sprigg, as his last Will and Tes-
tament, in the presence of us,

JOHN TROTTER,
THOMAS FOWLKES.

 THE WILL OF JANE BUDGE.

IN the name of God, Amen, I, JANE BUDGE, of Beverley, in the County of York, widow, being of sound and disposing mind and memory, do make and declare this to be my last Will and Testament in manner following: that is to say, first, and principally, I recommend my soul into the hands of Almighty God who gave it, hoping pardon and remission of all my sins; my body I commit to the earth to be decently buried at the discretion of my executrix herein after named.

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And

And as to my worldly estate, I give and dispose thereof as follows (to wit) I give, devise, and bequeath my leasehold cottage and garden, situate and lying near Beverley aforesaid, and now in the tenure of PETER PUMPS, unto my daughter, JOYCE BUDGE, her executors, administrators, and assigns. Also, I give and bequeath unto my two daughters, JOYCE BUDGE and JULIET BUDGE, all my wearing apparel, to be equally divided between them, except my blue Sunday petticoat, which I give and bequeath to my daughter JULIET. Also I give and bequeath unto my said daughter JULIET my bed and bedstead, with the coverlid and blankets thereunto belonging: together with a chest of drawers, a table, a spinning-wheel, frying-pan, brass kettle, six pewter plates, two candlesticks, and a snuff box. All the rest and residue of my goods, chattels and effects whatsoever not herein before by me given and disposed of (after my just debts, legacies, and funeral expences are fully paid and satisfied) I give and bequeath unto my daughter JOYCE BUDGE, whom I do constitute and make my sole executrix of this my last Will and Testament, revoking all and every Will by me at any time heretofore made. And lastly I do appoint THOMAS TICKLE, of Beverley, aforesaid, taylor, and JOHN PICKLE, of the said town, tinker, trustees to this my last Will and Testament, desiring they will see the same duly performed in every point according to the true intent and meaning thereof. In witness whereof I the said JANE BUDGE have hereunto set my hand and seal this Twenty-seventh day of April, in the Year of our Lord, 179.

JANE BUDGE.

Signed, sealed, published,
and declared by the
testatrix JANE BUDGE,
as and for her last Will
and Testament in the
presence of us, who in
the presence of each
other, and also of the
said testatrix, have sub-
scribed our names, as
witnesses thereof,

DAVID DAVIS,
HUMPHREY MORRISON.

If there be any thing omitted in a Will which the testator wishes to add, explain, alter, or retract, there is a Codicil or Schedule annexed, as follows:

CODICIL TO THE WILL OF GEORGE HOOPER.

BE it known unto all men by these presents, that I, GEORGE HOOPER, of the city of Westminster, yeoman, have made and declared my last Will and Testament in writing, bearing date the 27th. day of May, 179 . I, the said JOHN HOOPER, by this Codicil, do ratify and confirm my said last Will and Testament; and do give and bequeath to my niece, MARTHA HOOPER, the sum of fifty pounds, of good and lawful money of England, to be paid unto her, the said MARTHA HOOPER, by my executor, out of my estate: and my will and meaning is, that this codicil or schedule be adjudged to be a part or parcel of my last Will and Testament; and that all things therein mentioned and contained be faithfully and truly performed, and as fully and amply in every respect, as if the same were so declared and set down in my said last Will and Testament. Witness my hand this second day of May, 179 .

GEORGE HOOPER.

CODICIL TO THE WILL OF ROBERT NORTH, Esq.

I GIVE unto Mrs. R. G. my walnut-tree bureau, made large to contain cloaths; but I hope she will not forget, when she makes use of it, that graces and virtues are a lady's most ornamental dress; and that that dress has this peculiar excellence, that it improves by wearing.

I give to Lieutenant W. M. (my godson) my sword, and hope he will, if ever occasion should require it, convince a rash world he has learnt to obey his God as well as his General, and that he entertains too true a sense of honour even to admit any thing in the character of a good soldier which is inconsistent with the duty of a good christian.

And now having, I hope, made a proper disposition of my lands and money, those pearls of great price in the present esteem of man, let me take this opportunity of expressing my
gratit.

gratitude to the grand original proprietor ; and here I must direct my praises to that benign Being, who, through all the stages of my life, hath encompassed me with a profusion of favours, and who, by a wonderful and gracious Providence hath converted my very misfortunes and disappointments into blessings. Nor let me omit what the business just finished seems more particularly to require of me, to return him my unfeigned thanks, who, to all the comforts and conveniences of life, has superadded this also, of being useful in death, by thus enabling me to dispose of a double portion, namely, one of love to the poor, and another of gratitude to my friends.

All my faults and follies, almost infinite as they have been, I leave behind me, with wishes that as they have had here their birth and origin, they may here be buried in everlasting oblivion. My infant graces and little embryo virtues are, I trust, gone before me into Heaven, and will, I hope, prove successful messengers to prepare my way. Thus to exist, though but in prospect, is at present joy, gladness, transport, extacy. Fired with a view of this transcendent happiness, and triumphant in hope, (those noble privileges of a christian,) how is it possible to forbear crying out, "O death ! Why art thou so long in coming ? Why tarry the wheels of thy chariot ?"

To that Supreme Being, whose treasures and goodness are thus infinite and inexhaustible, be all honour and glory for ever, Amen, amen.

ROBERT NORTH.

PROBATE

IS the proving a Will or Testament before the ecclesiastical judges, delegated by the Bishop, who is ordinary of the place where the party dies. When the Will is proved, the original must be put in the registry of the ordinary, and a copy in parchment is made out under his seal, and delivered to the executor or administrator, together with a certificate of its having been proved before him. If all the effects of the deceased are in the same diocese, the Bishop of the diocese, or the

the Archdeacon, has the Probate; but if they are dispersed in several dioceses or jurisdictions, then the Will must be proved, or administration taken out, before the metropolitan of the province, by way of special prerogative; whence the Court where the validity of the Will is tried, and the Office in which it is registered, are called the Prerogative Court, and the Prerogative Office, of the provinces of Canterbury and York.

Where a Will disposes of lands and tenements of freehold, it is frequently proved by witnesses in Chancery. The devise of a personal estate is not considered of any effect till Probate be made of the Will by the executor.

EXECUTOR

IS a person nominated by a Testator to see his Will executed or performed. A person thus appointed may refuse to take the charge upon him; however, should he meddle with the effects of the Testator as Executor, his subsequent refusal is void, and he is charged as Executor.

An Executor to whom a legacy is left, must either stand the executorship, or relinquish the legacy.

After a discharge of debts, an Executor must pay the legacies; in case, however, of a deficiency of assets, the legacies must abate proportionably, for the purpose of discharging the debts, except a specific legacy, such as a piece of plate, which does not abate, unless, indeed, there be actually not enough without it. Supposing the legatees have been paid their legacies, and debts come in more than enough to exhaust the residuum, they are bound to refund a ratable part.

ADMINISTRATOR

IS the person to whom the administration of the goods of a deceased person is committed, in default of an Executor. An action lies for, or against, an Administrator, as for or against

against an Executor; and he is accountable to the value of the goods of the deceased, and no further; unless there be waste, or other abuse chargeable on him. If the Administrator dies, his Executors are not Administrators; but a new administration must be granted. If a stranger, who is neither Administrator nor Executor, take the goods of the deceased, and administer, he shall be charged, and sued as an Executor, not as an Administrator. If a woman hath goods thus committed to her charge or administration, she is called Administratrix, and is equally accountable.

LEGACY

IS a donation by a Will or Testament. With respect to the payment of it, if it be paid to the father of an infant, (a person under twenty-one years) it is not a good payment; and the Executor may be compelled to pay it again: and, where any Legacy is bequeathed to a feme-covert, or married woman, paying it to her alone is not sufficient: the husband must be privy to it.

There are Contingent, Lapsed, and Vested Legacies. A Contingent Legacy is a Legacy depending on the life of the Legatee. If it be left to any person on a proviso, that if he should attain the age of twenty-one, and he should die before that time, it is a Lapsed Legacy. If it be left to be paid *when* he attains that age, it is a Vested Legacy; and ~~should the~~ Legatee die, his representatives are entitled to receive it out of the Testator's estate at the time when it would have become payable, had the Legatee lived. In case of a Vested Legacy, due immediately, and charged on land or money in the funds, which yield an immediate interest, interest is payable thereon from the Testator's death; but if charged only on the personal estate, which cannot be immediately got in, it shall carry interest only from the end of the year, after the Testator's death. If a Legacy be devised, and no certain time of payment mentioned, and the Legatee be an infant, he shall have interest for the Legacy from the expiration of one year after the death of the Testator; but if the Legatee be of full age, he shall have no interest but from the time of the demand of the Legacy. Where a Legacy is payable at a day certain, it must be paid with interest from that day.

ESTATE.

THIS is the title or interest which a man has in lands, tenements, &c. Estates are got divers ways, viz. by descent, conveyance, or grant, from one person to another. They are real, of lands, &c. or personal, of goods and chattels; otherwise distinguished into freeholds, which descend to the heir, and chattels, which go to the Executors.

DESCENT

IS the order or manner in which lands and tenements are derived to any man from his ancestors. Thus, to make his Descent from his ancestors, is to shew how, and by what particular degrees, the land in question came to a person from his ancestors. Lineal Descent is that conveyed down, in a right line, from the grandfather to the father, and from the father to the son, from the son to the grandson, &c. Collateral Descent is that springing out of the side of the line, or blood; as from a man to his brother, nephew, &c. It is easy to compute, by the rules of progression, how many lineal ancestors any man has within a certain number of degrees. Thus, it would appear, that a person, at the twentieth degree, or the distance of twenty generations, has above a million of ancestors.

HEREDITARY RIGHT

DENOTES a right or privilege, in virtue whereof a person succeeds to the effects of his ancestors. Hereditary is also applied to certain families. Thus, the offices of Earl Marshal, and Lord Great Chamberlain of England, are Hereditary in the families of the Dukes of Norfolk and Ancaster.

HEREDITAMENTS

ARE such immoveable things as a man may have to himself and his heirs by way of inheritance; or which, not being otherwise bequeathed, do naturally, and of course, descend to him who is next heir of blood, and fall not to the executor or administrator.

MORTGAGE.

MORTGAGE.

THIS is an obligation, by which lands or tenements of a debtor are pawned or bound over to the creditor for money borrowed, to be the property of the creditor for ever, if the money be not repaid at the time the parties agree. He who lays the pawn is called the Mortgager; he who takes it, the Mortgagee. If one man borrows of another a thousand, ten thousand, or twenty thousand pounds, and grants him an estate in fee, on condition that if he, the Mortgager, shall repay the Mortgagee the money on a certain day mentioned in the Deed, that then the Mortgager may re-enter on the estate so granted in pledge; or, as is now the more usual way, that the Mortgagee shall re-convey the estate to the Mortgager; in this case, the land so put in pledge, is, by law, in case of non-payment at the time limited, entirely gone from the Mortgager. But, it being formerly a doubt whether, by taking such an estate in fee, it did not become liable to the wife's dower, and other incumbrances of the Mortgagee, it became usual to grant only a long term of years by way of Mortgage; with condition to be void on re-payment of the mortgage money; which course has been since continued; and the usual way is, to agree that the Mortgager shall hold the land till the day assigned for payment; when, in case of failure, the Mortgagee may take possession of it, without any possibility, at law, of being afterwards dispossessed by the Mortgager. Here, however, the Courts of Equity interpose, if the estate be of greater value than the sum lent upon it; and they allow the Mortgager, at any reasonable time, to redeem his estate; paying to the Mortgagee his principal, interest, and expences. This is called the Equity of Redemption, and enables a Mortgager to call on the Mortgagee, who has possession of his estate, to restore it back, and give an account of the rents and profits received, on payment of his whole debt and interest. But then it is to be observed, on the other hand, that the Mortgagee may either compel the sale of the estate, or call upon the Mortgager to redeem it; in default whereof the latter loses, without a possibility of recal, his Equity of Redemption.

GEOGRAPHY.

GEOGRAPHY.

HAVING hitherto treated upon subjects which I conceive to be truly useful, I shall now endeavour to render the work of still farther utility by the introduction of **GEOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES**, comprehending the **RISE and PROGRESS of GEOGRAPHY**, with an Explanation of **GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS**; and conclude the whole with a **VIEW of EUROPE**.

With respect to the knowledge of Geography, the Chaldeans and Egyptians were the people who first paid any particular attention to it; and the first map that ever appeared, was made by order of Sesostris I. the Conqueror of Egypt.

It was a favourite custom with the Romans, after they had subdued any province, to have a map, or painted representation thereof, carried in great pomp, for the gratification of the people.

It is related of the Senate of Rome, that about a century before the birth of Christ, they sent Geographers into divers parts of the world, to make surveys and mensurations of the globe; they never saw, however, a twentieth part of it.

An Egyptian Monarch, named Neco, commanded the Phenicians to make a survey of the Coast of Africa: they accomplished it in the space of three years. Cleomene, King of Sparta, had a table of brass presented to him, in which was described so much of the earth as was known, with its seas and rivers.

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Geographical

Geographical maps were used at Athens, in the time of Socrates; for this great philosopher lowered the haughtiness and pride of Alcibiades, by desiring him to point out his territories in Attica in a map, which the latter could not do till instructed by the former.

Alexander the Great, on his march into Asia, took with him two Geographers, in order to measure and describe the roads; this they did with such ability and accuracy, that, from their itineraries, the writers of the following ages took many particulars. It was in the time of Alexander that the celebrated Geographer, Pytheas, flourished; and Aristotle appears to have been as well acquainted with Geography, as with philosophy. After the days of Alexander, several ingenious men distinguished themselves by the cultivation and improvement of this science; and it was transmitted, with the other arts, from Greece to Rome. Polybius reconnoitred the African coasts, as well as those of Spain and France, and measured the distances of all those places which had been visited by Hannibal in his march over the Pyrenees and Alps.

Under the consulship of Julius Cæsar and Mark Anthony, persons of great and enterprising abilities were employed in surveying and measuring the Globe.

Augustus was a very warm promoter of this science: and the study and advancement of it was much encouraged under Tiberius, Claudius, Vespasian, Domitian, and Adrian.

Pliny, the naturalist, has given a description of the countries known in his time, in his third, fourth, fifth, and sixth books of his Natural History. Marinus, the Tyrian, corrected and enlarged the discoveries of Geographers who had lived before him; and the Emperor Antoninus was a zealous promoter of the science. Geography, however, notwithstanding the ingenuity and efforts of its professors, was in a very imperfect state till about the 150th year of the Christian æra, when Ptolemy of Alexandria greatly contributed to the improvement of it, by a much more ample and accurate description of the terrestrial globe than had before been given. He corrected mistakes, and supplied many defects in former charts; and by reducing the distances of places on the earth to degrees and minutes, making use of the degrees of Longitude and Latitude, and settling the situa-
tion

tion of places by astronomical observations, he reduced the science into a regular system, and laid a foundation for those farther discoveries and improvements which resulted naturally from the progressive state of Geometry, Astronomy, Navigation, and Commerce.

Many important and valuable Geographical works appeared in the time of Dioclesian, Constantius, and others. Under the Emperor Theodosius, the provincial and itinerary chart or table, since known under the name of Peutinger, was formed and digested; and the last work which deserves to be classed with those of the ancients, was the *Notitia Imperii*, attributed to Ethicus, who lived between the years 400 and 450 of the Christian æra.

The ages of barbarism succeeded the fall of the Roman empire; and the arts and sciences had then no refuge or protection but from the Arabians and Orientalists in Asia; the chief of whom, eminent for their love of Geography, were Almamon, Califf of Babylon, and Abulfeda, a Syrian Prince.

After learning had revived in Europe, and particularly during the two last centuries, Geography has been greatly improved and enlarged by voyages, travels, and a variety of nautical and astronomical observations.

Geography forms a branch of the mathematics, of the mixed kind; because it considers the earth, and its affections, as depending on quantity; and, consequently, as measurable, viz. its figure, place, magnitude, motion, celestial appearances, &c. It is considered either as general and special, or universal and particular. General or Universal Geography is that which considers the earth in general, without any regard to particular parts of the globe; as its figure, magnitude, motion, land, sea, &c. And this may be subdivided into *absolute* Geography, which respects the body of the earth itself, its parts and peculiar properties, &c. *relative*, which accounts for the appearance and accidents owing to celestial causes, and *comparative*, which explains those properties that arise from comparing different parts of the earth together.

Special or particular Geography considers the constitution of the several particular regions or countries, their bounds, figure, &c. with the mountains, forests, mines, waters, plants, animals, &c. therein; also their climates, seasons, heat, weather,

ther, distance from the Equator, &c. and their inhabitants, arts, customs, commodities, food, language, religion, policy, &c. Special Geography may be subdivided, with respect to the several periods of its progress, into *ancient*, including a description of the earth, conformable to the knowledge which the ancients had till the decline of the Roman empire; the Geography of the *mean* age, which extended from the fall of the empire of Rome to the restoration of learning; and *Modern* Geography, comprehending the actual description of the earth since that time.

With regard to its objects and uses, *Special* Geography may be divided into *Natural*, which treats of the divisions and distinctions which Nature has made in the surface of the globe, and the complexion, language, &c. of its inhabitants; *Historical*, comprehending the different revolutions which any country, or part of a country, has undergone; *Civil*, or *Political*, including the mode of government of any country; *Sacred*, describing such countries and places as are mentioned in Scripture and Ecclesiastical History, &c.

Geography, as I have already observed, has been considerably improved and extended by voyagers, or the art of navigation; the invention of which is attributed by historians to the *Æginetes*, Phœnicians, Tyrians, and the ancient inhabitants of Britain. The poets refer the invention to Neptune; some of the ancients, to Bacchus, others to Hercules, some to Jason, and others to Janus, who is said to have made the first ship. Some pretend that the first hint was taken from the flying of a kite; others, from the fish called Nantilus: and others attribute it to accident.

It is certain that the English have greatly cultivated and promoted this science. In 1536, Henry VIII. encouraged a society of merchants to send out two ships to make discoveries in the northern parts of America, where it was hoped a passage to India might be found. The attempt proved abortive, with regard to the principal intention, but it laid the foundation of that beneficial fishery which the English still carry on at Newfoundland.

Edward VI. was very desirous of making discoveries in the North-east parts of Europe; and he encouraged a company of English merchants to send Sir Hugh Willoughby with three ships, in order to open a new passage to Russia
by

by the northern ocean, and, if possible, to pursue their course to China. The attempt proved unfortunate to the commander in chief, who being obliged, by the approach of winter, to take shelter in an obscure harbour of Russian Lapland, was there, with the whole of his crew, frozen to death.

One of the ships, commanded by Sir Richard Chancellor, was, however, fortunate enough to get into the sea, on the coast of Russia. Sir Richard landed at the abbey of St. Nicholas, near Archangel, in order to wait upon the Czar, John Basilowitz, then engaged in war.

At this time the Russians had neither harbours or shipping on the shores of the Baltic; their furs, hemp, &c. were carried into Livonia, and thence distributed to the different parts of Europe.

Sir Richard reached the Czar's Court at Moscow, and was kindly received by him; who, desirous of opening a trade from one of his own ports with the English, granted very extensive privileges.

The trade to Turkey was begun in 1583, and a company established for carrying it on with spirit and advantage. Before that time the Emperor of the Turks had considered England as a province of France. The power and fame of Elizabeth, however, removed this mistaken opinion: he gave the English a kind reception, and granted them even larger privileges than those he had before given to the French.

It was the knowledge of Geography that distinguished the reign of James I. The English colonies commenced in this reign, and gradually increased to an amazing height of power and grandeur. Queen Elizabeth had done little more than given a name to the Continent of Virginia; and, after planting one feeble colony, which soon decayed, that country was entirely abandoned. In 1606, Newport carried over a colony, and began a settlement, which the company that were established for that purpose in London and Bristol, furnished every thing necessary for its success. About three years after, Nargal, distinguished for his taste and attachment to Geography, discovered a nearer and more direct passage to Virginia than had hitherto been known. He left the track of the ancient navigators, who had di-

rected their course to the southward of the tropic, sailed westward by means of the trade winds, and then returned to the northward till he reached the English settlements. He stood directly for Virginia; by which means he reached that part of North America in almost half the time that was deemed necessary by the ancient method.

The study of Geography has of late years been the employment of persons happily calculated for it by nature: indeed it is a science which all people, except the very dregs of Society, have some occasion or other to be acquainted with. It is indispensibly necessary for men of letters, because no history can be perfectly understood without it; to politicians it is necessary, because it is impossible to comprehend the true interest of different states and countries, without a knowledge of this science. Both sea and land officers have occasion for it, as being informed by it of the nature and circumstances of places, and being enabled to take measures accordingly. Merchants and traders should certainly have a knowledge of it, because it assists them in establishing an advantageous commerce. In short, all who have any interest in knowing, or who have merely a curiosity to know, any thing of the transactions of the world, or are desirous of forming a judgment of different events in the periods of either war or peace, should have some knowledge of Geography.

We are to consider the EARTH, with regard to the four cardinal points; these are the North, South, East, and West; and all the points, included between them, may have respect to a particular place. By this means we know the situation of the different countries of the world, with regard to each other; for some are oriental, or towards the east, with regard to those that are occidental, or lie westerly of them. Thus, England is to the West of France, and Poland to the East of Germany, and Africa is to the South of Europe. We may also distinguish the points that lie between those that are cardinal, thus: though Spain is to the South of France, yet it lies also to the westward thereof; but as they do not lie exactly South or West of each other, Spain may be said to lie South-west of France; and, for the same reason, on the contrary, France will be North-east, with regard to Spain. The like may be said of any other two countries.

EXPLA-

EXPLANATION OF GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS.

The **LONGITUDE** of the earth sometimes denotes its extent from East and West, according to the direction of the Equator; by which it stands contradistinguished from the Latitude of the earth, which denotes its extent from one pole to the other.

To discover an exact method of finding the Longitude at sea, is a problem that has greatly perplexed the mathematicians of these two last ages; and, for the solution whereof, considerable rewards have been offered by the English, French, Dutch, and other nations; this being the only thing wanted to render Navigation perfect.

LATITUDE denotes the distance of a place from the Equator; or, an arch of the Meridian, intercepted between the Zenith of the place, and the Equator. Hence Latitude is either northern or southern, according as the place, whose Latitude is spoken of, is on this or that side of the Equator. Thus London is said to be in 51 degrees 32 minutes northern Latitude.

On the convex part of the globe, which is a spherical body, is represented the whole world, as it consists of land and water. The circumference of the globe is divided into 360 degrees, every degree containing 60 geographical miles; consequently the globe is 21,600 such miles round; but as 60 Geographical miles are about 69 miles English measure, the circuit of the globe is therefore 24,840 English miles.

The circles represented on the globe, are, 1. The Equator, and the circles parallel to it. 2. The Meridian, and the rest of the meridional lines. 3. The Horizon. 4. The two tropics of Cancer and Capricorn. 5. The two Polar Circles.

The **EQUATOR**, or Equinoctial, or Equinoctial Line, is a great circle equally distant from the poles of the world. When the Sun is in this circle, there is an equality of days and nights all over the world: hence these points are called the Equinoxes. Though the **EQUATOR** and **EQUINOCTIAL** are generally considered as synonymous, yet there is a difference; the latter is a great and immoveable circle under which the former moves in its diurnal motion; so that the difference

difference lies in the Equator being moveable, and the Equinoctial immoveable.

The **MERIDIAN** is a great circle, supposed to pass through the poles of the world, and those of the horizon, cutting the sphere into two equal parts, the one oriental, and the other occidental: it also passes through the zenith and nadir in every place, and cuts the horizon at right angles. It is called the Meridian, because it marks half the space of time during which the sun and stars appear above the horizon. As there is an infinite number of zeniths and horizons, the number of meridians is also infinite; for the meridian is changed, as well as the zenith and horizon, every step we take towards the East or West; but if we pass in a right line northward or southward, we still continue under the same meridian, though we constantly change the zenith and horizon. However, Geographers only reckon 360 meridians, which are supposed to pass through every degree of the Equinoctial. It has been customary for Geographers to establish a first meridian; though this is altogether arbitrary. Ptolemy placed it at the island of Ferro, which is the most western of the Canaries; but the common method at present is, for every Geographer to make the meridian of the capital of his country the first meridian; and accordingly, from the meridian of London, the longitudes should be reckoned East or West. The use of meridians in a globe is to shew when it is noon or midnight at the place to which it is applied; and to divide the visible hemisphere into two parts, viz. into oriental and occidental.

The **ZODIAC** is a broad circle, whose middle is the Ecliptic, and its extremes two circles parallel thereto, at such distance from it, as to bound, or comprehend, the excursion of the Sun and Planets. The Sun never deviates from the middle of the Zodiac; i. e. from the Ecliptic: the planets all do, more or less. Their greatest deviations, called latitudes, are the measure of the breadth of the Zodiac; which is broader, or narrower, as the greatest latitude of the planets is made more or less. Accordingly, some make it 16, some 18, and some 20 degrees broad. The Zodiac is divided into twelve portions, called signs; and these divisions, or signs, are denominated from the constellations which anciently possessed each part. But the Zodiac being immoveable,

able, and the stars having a motion from West to East, those constellations now no longer correspond with their proper signs; whence arises what is called the Precession of the Equinoxes.

The **HORIZON** is a great circle which divides the world into two equal parts or hemispheres, of which one is superior and visible, and the other inferior and invisible. When the Sun is above this circle, it is day; and when it is sunk 18 degrees beneath it, night then commences. This circle is the largest on the globe, and the Meridian is inclosed therein, with all the rest of the sphere. Beside, it is immoveable; and on the circumference are marked the degrees of the twelve signs of the Zodiac, and the days of the twelve months in the year.

The **TROPICS** are two small circles parallel to the Equinoctial, described by the first points of the first degrees of the signs termed Cancer and Capricorn; that is, where they touch the Ecliptic. They are distant from the Equinoctial near 23 degrees and a half. The Sun describes these Tropics about the 20th of June, and the 21st of September. When he touches the tropic of Cancer, he makes the longest day for the inhabitants between the Equator and the North Pole; and, when he comes to the beginning of Capricorn, he makes the longest day for the people between the Equator and the South Pole. On the contrary, the shortest day to the former, will be when the Sun touches the tropic of Cancer. For this reason, these points are called the winter and the summer Tropics, as also the southern and northern; and they are, as it were, the two barriers, beyond which the Sun never passes.

The **POLES OF THE WORLD**, thus called by way of eminence, are two points, each 90 degrees distant from the Equator on the surface of our globe, through which the axis passes. They are distinguished by the names of Arctic and Antarctic, or North and South Poles: that which is elevated above our Horizon, is called the Arctic; the other, the Antarctic.

The **AXIS OF THE WORLD** is a line passing through the centre of the earth; and the axis of the earth, upon which she performs her diurnal motion, is a part of the axis of the world.

world: it is always parallel to itself, and at right angles with the Equator.

The ZONES are five broad circles encompassing the globe, and are distinguished chiefly by the temperature of the air. The Torrid Zone contains all the space between the two Tropics, and is so called from its excessive heat, the Sun being vertical twice every year to all that inhabit it. This circle is about 47 degrees broad. The two Temperate Zones are so called from their lying between the two degrees of heat and cold, viz. between the Torrid Zone and the Frigid Zones; the one being called the Northern Temperate Zone, and the other the Southern Temperate Zone. These are either of them 43 degrees broad. Of the two Frigid Zones, the one encompasses the Arctic or North Pole, at the distance of 23 degrees and a half; and the other, the Antarctic or South Pole, at the same distance.

Nothing can give a better or more general idea of the earth than a globe, as being of the same shape and figure; but as it is impossible to construct one large enough to exhibit every part of the earth and sea distinctly, there is a necessity of having recourse to maps.

Geography, as well as other Sciences, has terms peculiar to itself; some of which relate to the EARTH, and others to the WATER.

A CONTINENT, or main land, is a large part of the earth which comprehends several countries not separated by any sea. Sicily is said to have been anciently torn from the continent of Italy; and it is an old tradition, which some of our antiquaries have still a regard to, that Britain was formerly a part of the Continent of France. The world is ordinarily divided into two grand Continents; the old and the new: The old comprehends Europe, Asia, and Africa; the new, the two Americas, North and South. In the terraqueous globe, we distinguish three parts or regions, viz. 1. The external part, or crust, which is that from which vegetables arise, and animals are nourished. 2. The middle, or intermediate part, which is possessed by fossils, extending farther than human labour ever yet penetrated. 3. The internal, or central part, which is unknown to us, though by many authors supposed of a magnetic nature; by others, a mass or sphere of fire; by others, an abyss, or collection

lection of waters, &c. The external part of the globe either exhibits inequalities, as mountains or vallies; or it is plain and level, or dug in channels, fissures, beds, &c. for rivers, lakes, seas, &c. These inequalities are supposed to have arisen from a rupture or subversion of the earth, by the force of subterraneous fires or waters. The earth, in its natural and original state, is supposed to have been perfectly round, smooth, and equable; and its present rude and irregular form is attributed principally, by some writers, to the great deluge. The figure of the earth is demonstrated to be nearly spherical. The moon is often perceived to be eclipsed by the shadow of the earth; and, in all eclipses, that shadow appears circular, what way soever it be projected, whether towards the East, West, North, or South, and however its diameter vary, according to the greater or less distance from the earth. Hence it follows, that the shadow of the earth, in all situations, is really conical; and, consequently, the body that projects it, *i. e.* the earth, is nearly spherical. Our globe is now generally supposed to have two grand motions, besides that on which depends the precession of the Equinoxes; the one diurnal, round its own axis in the space of 24 hours; which constitutes the natural day; the other, annual, round the Sun, in an elliptical orbit or tract, in 365 days and six hours, constituting the year.

An ISLAND, or ISLE, is a portion of the earth entirely surrounded by water; in which sense it stands contradistinguished from a CONTINENT, or Main Land, or *Terra Firma*. Islands are supposed, by some, to have been formed by the violence of the sea, which has torn off large promontories from the Continent, as Sicily and Great Britain; of which I have already spoken. St. Helena, Ascension, and other steep rocky island, are supposed, by some naturalists, to have become so by the sea overflowing their neighbouring countries. Ceylon, Sumatra, and other islands in the East Indies, are conjectured, by some, to have been rent off from the main land. It is positively insisted on by some writers, however, that some of the islands are as ancient as the world itself; for they do not allow it by any means probable that large islands, far remote from the Continent, are new, or that they either arose out of the sea, or were torn from the main land. It is, however, certain that some islands have

have emerged above the waves, as Santorini, in the Archipelago, and three others near it; one of which arose from the bottom of the sea, after an earthquake, which was supposed to have loosened it from its hold; for the water, in a few minutes, made three fluxes and refluxes, rose 60 feet higher than usual, and dashed against rocks with prodigious violence.

A **PENINSULA** is a quantity of land which is only joined to a continent by a neck of the same; it being every where else encompassed by water.

An **ISTHMUS**, or neck of land, is that part by which a peninsula is joined to the land.

A **PROMONTORY** is a high part of land advancing or stretching into the sea, and is commonly called a Cape, when it appears like a mountain; but when the advanced part has little elevation, it is termed a point. Thus the Cape of Good Hope is a mountainous promontory.

An **OCEAN** is a large collection of waters encompassing the whole globe; it is that huge body of waters wherein the two grand Continents known to us, the new and old, are inclosed like islands. The Ocean takes different names, according to the different countries it borders on; as the British Ocean, German Ocean, &c. It is, by some, divided into Superior, or Upper; and Inferior, or Lower. The Upper is subdivided, according to the four cardinal points, into the Northern, Southern, Eastern, and Western: the Northern is that part next the North Pole; bounded on the south with the arctic circle, and the northern coasts of Europe, Asia, and America; and on the north with the unknown lands about the Pole. The Western or Atlantic is that part of the grand Ocean which washes the western coasts of Europe and Africa, and the eastern of America, extending from the arctic circle to the Equinoctial. The Southern or European Ocean is that part which reaches from the Equinoctial to the unknown antarctic lands. The Eastern or Indian, (which has its first name from its situation to the east, and its latter from India, the chief country it waters,) washes the shores of the eastern coasts of Africa, and the south of Asia, and is bounded on the East by the Indian islands and the southern continents. The Inferior or American Ocean is that vast part of the grand Ocean which washes the coasts of America:

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it is divided into three parts, viz. the North Sea, which washes the eastern coasts of America; the Magellanic Sea, of vast extent; and the South, or Pacific, which washes the western coast of America to the East, to a considerable extent; and from South to North, from the tropic of Capricorn to the land of Jesso. It is computed that the ocean takes up considerably more of what we know of the terrestrial globe than the dry land.

A *SEA* is a smaller collection of waters, when understood in a strict sense; but, in general, every part of the ocean may be called the sea; and it is still more general, when the terraqueous globe is said to consist of land and sea.

The term *Sea* is variously applied by our sailors, to a single wave, to the agitation produced by a multitude of waves in a storm, or to their particular progress or direction. Thus they say, "A heavy sea broke over our quarter;" or, "We shipped a heavy sea, &c." A "long sea," implies an uniform and steady motion of long and extensive waves; and, on the contrary, a "short sea" is when they run irregularly, interrupted, and broken, so as to burst over a ship's side or quarter.

Till the time of the Emperor Justinian, the sea was common and open to all. Leo gave a particular commission to certain persons to divide the Bosphorus among them. From that time the sovereign princes have been endeavouring to engross, as it were, the sea. The republic of Venice pretends to be so far mistress in her gulph, that there is a formal marriage every year between her and the Adriatic. The English have particularly claimed the empire of the sea in the channel, and even that of all the seas encompassing England, Scotland, and Ireland, and as far as the shores of the neighbouring states.

A *GULPH* is an arm or part of the ocean, running up with the land, and forming a capacious bay between two promontories. Such is the Gulph of Venice, called also the Adriatic Sea; the Gulph of Constantinople, called the Black Sea; the Gulph of Persia, called the Red Sea; the Gulph of Lyons; the Gulphs of Mexico, St. Lawrence, and California; the Gulph of Bengal, and those of Cochin China and Kamtchuka.

A Gulph is strictly distinguished from a Sea, because the

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latter is larger; and a **BAY** differs from a **Gulph** only in being less. A **CREEK** is a small inlet, and is much less than a Bay.

A **ROAD** is a place upon any coast where there is good anchorage, and where vessels, in some sense, are sheltered from the wind.

A **STRAIGHT**, **STREIGHT**, or **STRAIT**, is a narrow channel, or arm of the sea, shut up between lands on either side, and affording a passage out of one great sea into another. There are three kinds of Streights. 1. Such as join one ocean to another; of this kind are the Streights of Magellan and Le Maire. 2. Those which join the ocean to a Gulph: the Streights of Gibraltar and Babelmandel are of this kind, the Mediterranean and Red Sea being only large Gulphs. 3. Those which join one Gulph to another; as the Streight of Caffa, which joins the Palus Mæotis to the Euxine or Black Sea. The passage of Streights is commonly dangerous, on account of the rapidity and opposite motion of currents.

The most celebrated Streight in the world is that of Gibraltar, which is about 130 miles in length, and 12 broad, joining the Meriterranean Sea with the Atlantic Ocean.

A **LAKE** is a collection of Water inclosed in the cavity of some inland place, of considerable extent and depth. Lakes may be divided into four kinds: 1. Such as neither receive nor emit rivers. 2. Such as emit rivers, without receiving any. 3. Such as receive, without emitting any. 4. Such as both receive and emit rivers. Of the first kind, some are perennial, others temporary: most of the temporary owe their origin to rain, and to the cavity or depression of the place where they are lodged. The generation of perennial lakes may be also said to owe their origin to rain: though it is probable that many lakes have springs at the bottom, by which they are also continually supplied. A large lake of this kind is the lake of Parime in America, lying directly under the Equator, which is in length about 305 German miles, and the greatest breadth about 100 miles. The lake of Ness in Scotland has been commemorated by many writers. This lake never freezes, even if the winter be ever so severe: it is full of springs in almost every part; and its waters, in the very hardest frosts, run fluid and smoaking six miles down the river into which they are discharged, while every thing is frozen about them. The river notwithstanding, runs
very

very slowly, and from the smoke of the water there is raised a kind of fog which overspreads the whole country for several miles. There is a mountain near its side of two miles perpendicular height from the surface of the lake; and on the summit of this mountain there is another lake which has no opening visibly running into it, nor any outlet, and yet always keeps of the same degree of fullness, both summer and winter. Due West from the river into which the lower lake discharges itself, there is an opening of sea, or frith, of two miles long, and six wide: the middle of this is sometimes dry; and it is easily seen that this was once dry land, and an inhabited country.

That there are in many parts of the world vast subterranean lakes, cannot be doubted, because they are visible in some places; but their effects are frequently perceived where they are not themselves seen. There is a lake in Carniola, in Germany, which fills and empties itself, at times, most impetuously, bringing fish up with it, and communicates with another immense subterranean lake in the mountain Savor-nick. The grotto Podsperschio, in the same country, gives another instance of such a subterraneous lake. People enter the side of the mountain where this lake is, by a small opening, through which they go to a cavern of a great width and height; and at the end of this is a small opening again, through which they go on to the edge of a vast subterranean piece of water: they go with torches, and find the water very clear and fine. It is ten cubits deep at the edge, and is undoubtedly much more in the middle. The water runs into this lake by a large channel, and runs out of it again by another, falling down a precipice into another lake, and with such a prodigious noise, that the report of a pistol cannot be heard near it, which has been tried. This vast body of water sometimes runs off in a few minutes, and leaves the basin dry; and, in the course of some weeks, it fills again with a dreadful noise.

I shall now enter upon the important subject of CLIMATE, which is commonly applied to countries, differing from each other in point of seasons, or quality of soil; the term, however, is by no means to be confined to this; it is to be considered in a sense far more extensive.

CLIMATE, or CLIME, is a part of the surface of the earth, bounded by two circles parallel to the Equator, and of such a breadth, as that the longest day in the parallel near the Pole exceeds the longest day in that next the Equator by some certain space, viz. half an hour. The *beginning* of the Climate is the parallel circle wherein the day is the shortest. The *end*, is that wherein the day is the longest. The Climates, therefore, are reckoned from the Equator to the Pole; and are so many bands, or zones, terminated by lines parallel to the Equator: though, strictly, there are several Climates in the breadth of one Zone. As the Climates commence from the Equator, the first, at its beginning, has its longest day precisely twelve hours long; at its end, twelve hours and a half: the second, which begins where the first ends, viz. at twelve hours and a half, ends at thirteen hours; and so of the rest, as far as the polar circles, where those which Geographers call Hour Climates terminate, and Month Climates commence. As an Hour Climate is a space comprised between two parallels of the Equator, in the first of which the longest day exceeds that in the latter by half an hour; so the Month Climate is a space terminated between two circles parallel to the polar circles, whose longest day is longer or shorter than that of its contiguous one by thirty days.

With regard to the application of the term *Climate* to countries differing from each other in point of air, soil, seasons, &c. Montesquieu, in his Spirit of Laws, examines the influence of different climates on the manners, characters, and even laws of nations.

VIEW OF EUROPE.

FRANCE.

THIS Country is about 600 miles in length, and 560 in breadth; and the air is pure, healthy, and temperate. It is bounded on the N. by the Netherlands, on the E. by Germany, Swisserland, Savoy, and the Alps, on the S. by the Mediterranean Sea and the Pyrenees, and on the W. by the Ocean.

Ocean. It is situated in the centre of the Temperate Zone, and presents to the traveller, in various parts, most charming prospects. The soil, which is very fertile, produces corn, wine, oil, and flax, in great abundance: and there were many considerable manufactures; but these have greatly suffered in consequence of the Revolution: their foreign trade too has rapidly declined from the same cause.

This country, the provinces of which are divided into districts, is watered by a great number of rivers; of which the four principal are, the Loire, the Seine, the Rhone, and the Garonne.

Paris, the Metropolis of France, is one of the largest and most populous cities in Europe. It is of a circular form, and divided by the Seine, almost in two equal parts. The houses are generally built of hewn stone, and many of them six or seven stories high, with sash windows. The Cathedral Church, (or Notre Dame,) is situated on a little island on the Seine, and is a noble Gothic structure. The greatest curiosity in it is the altar-piece, composed of the finest Egyptian marble: there is an image of the Virgin Mary, sitting in a mournful posture at the foot of the cross, with a dead Christ on her knees. On her right hand is the figure of Louis XIII. on his knees, clothed in his royal robes, offering his crown and sceptre to the Virgin; and, on her left, Louis XIV. is in the same position.

The palaces of Paris (at least those buildings which used to be called palaces) are four; and the hospitals are twenty-eight.

At the village of Versailles, ten miles from Paris, situated in the middle of a valley, there is a most magnificent edifice; consisting of a superb range of apartments, which, together with its wings, forms a front of above three hundred fathoms. The ridge is decorated with statues, vases, and trophies ranged on ballisters, which run along the whole building. It is built so as to front the gardens, which abound with master-pieces of every kind.

Fontainebleau is a small town of the Gatinois, in the Isle of France: it is situated in the middle of a forest three miles from the river Seine, and forty-two from Paris. The French kings chose this for a hunting seat, on account of its

situation proper for that diversion. The castle, though irregularly built, is very magnificent.

In the gardens, among several brass statues in the middle of a large bason, there are seen a Diana stopping a stag by the horns, surrounded by four hounds; an Hercules; a serpent between two children; and a Cleopatra. Next you proceed to the pine-garden, and thence to the parterre of the great garden, where you have a most beautiful prospect of the castle. In the middle is a large bason, in which there rises an aquatic rock, which pours out its waters in a wonderful manner. To the right of this parterre, you see a piece of water level with the ground, in the middle of which is a superb statue of Apollo. The grottos and cascades are next to this parterre; at the entrance of a fine park, which is divided in the middle by a large canal. The walks along the park are most delightful. The forest contains upwards of six-and-twenty thousand acres; and the palace or castle stands in the centre.

In the Southern part of France, situated in the centre of Europe, and on the confluence of the rivers Rhone and Soan, stands the ancient, the opulent, and extensive City of Lyons; which, besides a splendid Cathedral, and other superb buildings, has the most magnificent Town-hall in France, if not in all Europe: it is a large stately building, in the form of an oblong square; and on each side are wings 420 feet in length; in the middle of the front is a cupola; and in the angles, beautiful projecting pavilions; the great gate is ornamented with two columns of the Ionic order, and leads into a large hall, richly ornamented with pictures; and the hospital and charity-house are both very handsome buildings. A traveller, before he leaves Lyons, should visit the convent at Croix Rousse; from the gardens of which there is a most delightful and extensive prospect of the Alps, and the country adjacent to the city; which is most beautifully variegated with rising grounds, meadows, lawns, country-seats, gardens, vineyards, &c. the whole forming the most pleasing landscape that the eye can possibly behold.

The next place to which people, who travel on pleasure, should go, is Avignon; whither they may be conveyed by water for about eight or nine livres; and a little below
Lyons

Lyons they are presented with various beautiful prospects; hills on each side immensely high; castles on the very summit of some of them; and the hills, though barren in themselves, have been rendered fertile by indefatigable industry. Here peaches, figs, almonds, plums, nectarines, pomegranates, and, in short, all the fruit that can gratify the taste, or please the eye, are in the greatest abundance; and vines, heavily loaded under their purple produce, hang in festoons from tree to tree.

Avignon the town, capital of Avignon the province, has some very handsome churches and other buildings; and commands an immense variety of the most beautiful objects of nature.

Nîmes, in Languedoc, is also a place well worth seeing. The situation of this town is extremely pleasant, having on one side, hills covered with vines, and olives; and on the other, a fine country, fertile in all sorts of grain. According to some historians, Nîmes is 580 years older than Rome; and was formerly reckoned the largest city in Europe. There is no city where there is to be found so numerous a collection of Roman antiquities: the amphitheatre, the square house, the temple of Diana, the great tower, several statues, and a multiplicity of inscriptions, are testimonies of it. The amphitheatre is a work of the Romans, and was built, according to appearance, during the empire of Adrian; it is of an oval form, with two ranks of arches placed one over the other, each composed of 60 arches, which make 195 fathoms in circumference; there are four principal entrances, placed, North, East, South, and West: this building is composed of stone as hard as marble, and put together without mortar: the middle (which served for the gladiators, and warlike exercises) is 100 feet diameter, and at present filled with small houses; on many stones of this superb monument there are inscriptions; also, a wolf suckling Romulus and Remus; and a representation of the gladiators engaged. The square house is twelve fathoms long, six broad, and twelve high, richly ornamented with stone pillars of the Corinthian order. The most able architect that France ever produced, declared he never saw so perfect and high finished a work. The temple of Diana is ancient, and of great magnificence; it is ornamented with ten marble pillars
of

of the Corinthian order; a beautiful cornice all round, and several superb statues in marble, many of them quite perfect; the ceiling is formed of stones six feet long, three broad, and eighteen inches thick, without the least visible means to support them. The great tower, situated on an eminence near the temple, is much decayed: near to it is a large piece of Roman pavement, which is very perfect and beautiful: being formed of different coloured stones, it resembles much a Turkey carpet.

The fountain of Nismes takes its source near the temple of Diana; where, from the centre of a small pool, not six yards in circumference, there flows up water as clear as crystal, in such abundance, as to supply the town, a vast number of mills, and forms extensive canals, basins, and cascades, beautiful beyond expression; all built of hewn stone: walks formed, trees planted, in the most uniform manner imaginable; so that, in short, neither expence or pains have been spared to render the whole the most complete and highly finished work throughout the kingdom.

The City of Blois is a very ancient and handsome place in Orleansois. Here are very fine fountains, and an handsome bridge over the Loire. This town is most pleasantly situated, partly on an eminence, and partly on a plain, bordering on each side the Loire. It is rather large than beautiful, as the houses and streets are extremely irregular; its chief ornament is the palace, which has gardens, fountains, water-works, and a park suitable to the magnificence of the building. There are fountains in different quarters of the town, which are supplied by an aqueduct, supposed to have been built in the time of the Romans.

With respect to the PEOPLE of France, they are very lively and active, with a great share of wit, and a natural disposition and aptitude for all bodily exercises: they are, however, of a most restless disposition, and appear more fond of war than any other people. As to treaties, covenants, &c. they pay very little regard to them. They violate a treaty, however solemn, with as little ceremony as they sit down to dinner.

Politeness is a characteristic with them; but this is often overdone; and that wit and sprightliness, otherwise so engaging, seems to be not purely natural. In the mean time, amidst

amidst their excessive fondness for wit, the understanding is neglected, as of little or no consequence; the effect of which is, that they often mistake the shadow for the substance, and seek merit in external appearances, and things of no affinity with it. As they vainly imagine no nation can come in competition with them for wit, so they arrogate to themselves the like superiority in qualities really praiseworthy, and especially military courage. Their natural levity subjects them in their own department, and particularly in their cloathing, to the tyranny of fashion, which is ever varying, and yet is submitted to by almost every European nation except the Spaniards.

GERMANY.

THIS country, which lies in the middle of Europe, is bounded on the E. by Hungary and Poland, on the N. by the Baltic Sea and Denmark; on the W. by the Netherlands, France, and Switzerland; and on the S. by the Alps. It is about 720 English miles in length, and 600 in breadth. The air differs greatly in different parts; but, in general, it is very temperate, especially on the banks of the Rhine and the Danube; in the northern part it is cold, and the ground less fruitful. The seasons likewise vary; in the south and western parts the weather is more constant, and the seasons more regular, than those of countries which border upon, or lie in the Ocean, in those provinces that lie next the sea, and that abound with lakes and rivers: there is plenty of rain. In other parts, where the surface of the earth is drier, there are sometimes considerable droughts. The North wind, from the Baltic, and the bleak mountains of Sweden, bring frosts and Snow. The eastern blasts, coming over a vast Continent of three or four thousand miles from China and Japan, bring dry and unwholesome weather. The South, in the Summer, brings refreshing breezes from the Alps; but the South-west wind is both the most frequent and wholesome that blows in Germany. In general, this country, and Poland, are so like to Great Britain, both in the air and climate, that no countries in Europe agree better

ter with the English constitution, or are productive of greater health and vigour to its inhabitants. The soil is exceedingly fruitful, in general producing plenty of corn, pasture, wood, flax, madder, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, and in great perfection. The country abounds with cattle, sheep, horses, and even the forests and wastes afford many things both for the sustenance of the poor and the accommodation of the rich. They furnish plenty of timber for building, and fuel for firing: there is variety of wild and tame beasts, wild fowl, and great numbers of deer. The forests likewise feed many herds of swine, and flocks of sheep. The orchards are full of our most common fruit-trees; and in the southern provinces there is plenty of the most delicious kinds. There are rich wines likewise produced from the vineyards, of which the Rhenish and the Moselle are in the greatest quantity and perfection, whereof much is exported to foreign nations. In short, no country perhaps in the world abounds with so great a variety of every thing conducing to the accommodation, as well as the support of life, as this; though others may perhaps exceed in the goodness of some particular articles; and yet even of these they might enjoy greater plenty and perfection if agriculture had been more the study of the natives, and had been more encouraged by gentlemen of estates and property in this country. So that large heaths and level forests, capable of great improvement, have, till very lately, remained uncultivated, of which the present History of Germany mentions some millions of acres, notwithstanding the fertility of the soil. Nor are the internal parts of the earth less liberal of its productions, for the emolument and commerce of its numerous inhabitants.

It is acknowledged that, in general, the surface of Germany is a spacious plain; yet interspersed with agreeable hills, no where to be deemed mountainous except towards the South and South-west, where the Alps, and a few mountains in Alsace, serve as boundaries and bulwarks against Italy and France; and of those, that are sometimes denominated such, in Suabia, at Thuringen, in Upper Saxony, at Hirschburg and Zottenberg in Silesia, dividing it from Moravia, &c. Their surface furnishes pasture for cattle, and their bowels are enriched with various metals, minerals, fossils,

fossils, precious stones, and even gold-dust has been found, especially on the banks of the Rhine, though generally intermixed with a red sand.

There are mines of silver, of quicksilver, of copper, tin, and a variety of other metals; jasper of several colours, amethysts, sapphire, agate, &c. pearls, turquois stones, and rubies, for which this country surpasses most in Europe, and of which there are great quantities preserved in the cabinets of the virtuosi.

Germany is differently divided by Geographers; it was anciently distinguished by Upper, or, Southern Germany; and Lower, or, Northern Germany; each of which were divided into eight Provinces: But the Emperor Maximilian I. having in the year 1500, divided the Empire into ten great parts, called Circles, and that division having been confirmed by Charles V. in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1522, it continues to be considered under that division, except that the tenth Circle, viz. that of Burgundy and the seventeen Provinces of the Low Countries, being long since detached from the Empire, Germany now consists of nine Circles only.

With respect to the People of Germany, their genius has appeared in the invention and improvement of many mechanical arts, especially clock-work; they have exceeded all the world in the variety of motions, to shew not only the course of the hours and minutes, but even of the sun, moon, and stars, wherof the clocks at Strasburg, Prague, and many other places, all over Germany, are sufficient instances.

Viennâ, the capital of Lower Austria, and the Empire, is situated on the little river Wien, which falls near it into the Danube. It is well fortified, in the modern manner. The city is about three miles round, but has large suburbs, and is very populous. It is the see of an Archbishop; and its Cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stephen, is a stately fabric. Here is a noble University, frequented by students of most nations in Europe. The Imperial Palace is here, but is not esteemed suitable to the grandeur of an Emperor, the apartments being too low, and not furnished in a superb taste; though it is acknowledged, the tapestry is so grand, as to be scarcely equalled by any Prince whatsoever. The Emperor's library is inferior to none for number and value of books, and several ancient manuscripts.

The

The buildings in Germany are exceeded by none in Europe, except in Italy: nor is there any country in Europe that has so many great and noble rivers.

There are in this vast Empire numbers of lakes and springs.

Schwalbach, in the Landgravate of Hesse, is famous for its many medicinal springs, which are of great virtue for the cure of particular disorders, and resorted to by persons of the greatest quality. Their virtues have been treated of by several German Physicians.

ITALY.

THIS fruitful and delightful country is bounded on the W. by the Alps, which separate it from the adjacent provinces of France; on the N. it is likewise bounded by the Alps, and on the E. by the dominions of the House of Austria. On the one side it is washed by the Mediterranean from Nice to the coast of Naples; and, on the other, by the Adriatic: and the gulph of Venice divides it from the fruitful island of Sicily, which, however, is certainly considered as a part of Italy.

We have different computations of the extent of Italy, according to the different sentiments of Authors concerning the proper bounds of this country: from the best informations of the present Geography of Italy, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, it is about 750 miles in length; — and from the frontiers of the Duchy of Savoy to those of the dominions of the states of Venice, which is its greatest breadth, about 400, though in some parts it is scarce 100.

The air and climate in different parts are as opposite as can well be imagined: bordering on Switzerland, and the country of the Grisons, the mountains are as high as in any part of Europe, the earth barren, and the air bleak and sharp; the plains of Lombardy, again, are justly stiled the Garden of Europe, as well on account of their fertility as the serenity and pleasantness of the climate; in the dominion of the church, and the Kingdom of Naples, the heat in summer is
excessive

excessive; to which, however, they are indebted for the richest fruits and the most odoriferous flowers, as well as oil, wine, silk, and other valuable commodities.

The soil is in general fertile, as it is watered by a great number of rivers, whose course cannot be very long, by reason of the narrowness of the country; but yet are very large, many of them navigable, and afford great plenty and variety of fish, and contribute many ways to enrich the territories through which they pass.—The chief products of this country are corn and rice; and grapes of various kinds, of which many sorts of excellent wines are made; oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, excellent olives and olivets, whose oil is no inconsiderable commodity: and in the south parts of it are sugar, almonds, and abundance of mulberry-trees which feed immense quantities of silk-worms, and have rendered this country famous for its various silk-manufactures. Here is likewise great plenty of all other fruits, in their greatest perfection, such as peaches, figs, nectarines, apricots, pears, apples, and pine-apples; their woods are for the most part always green, whence they have honey, wax, saffron, and many valuable medicinal plants. And the woods are likewise remarkable for the variety of birds that inhabit them, of variegated colours, and melodious notes. Their forests are likewise stored with ever-greens, and abound with tame and wild fowl.

There are few countries in the world better watered than this, in respect to springs, rivulets, small and great rivers, lakes, &c. Two of the principal rivers are the Po and the Tiber.

The Tiber runs through the city of Rome, from north to south, over which there are five bridges, but one of them is much decayed. No place is better provided with water than Rome; for, besides good springs, there are three grand aqueducts, conveying water into the city.

Rome, the capital, is a very ancient city, and the residence of the Pope: none can compare with it, in respect to the magnificence of its buildings and antiquities, the number of its monuments and curiosities, &c. It is the centre and magazine of all that is exquisite in painting, sculpture, and architecture. It has 300 churches, the most magnificent of which is that of St. Peter's; adjacent to which is the Vatican, or

winter palace of the Pope, with a famous library of the choicest books and manuscripts, and a delightful garden, called by way of eminence, Belvidere, having the finest collection of exotics in Europe. The city has 20 gates, and 300 antique towers still remaining. It is, in general, magnificently built; and the streets are spacious and well paved. The inhabitants possess many good qualities, and many bad ones: they are polite, prudent, industrious, and ingenious; but they are luxurious, effeminate, and addicted too much to pleasure.

The city of Rome is called Rome the Holy. Naples, Naples the Noble; Florence, the Beautiful; Genoa, the Superb; Ravenna, the Ancient; Milan, the Great; Venice, the Rich; Padua, the Learned; Lucca, the Handsome, Verona, the Charming.

At Florence is to be seen the celebrated Ducal Palace; at the great Gate of which is a Loadstone, said to weigh 5000 pounds: there are several galleries and rooms filled with the most costly rarities of nature and art; that called the Tribune, is 24 feet in diameter, covered with an arched cupola, the floor painted with a vast variety of curious marble, the walls hung with velvet richly ornamented, the windows are of polished crystal, and the inside of the cupola inlaid with mother of pearl: but the most considerable of all curiosities is the large diamond, valued at 100,000 crowns, curiosities in agate, lapis lazuli, rock-crystal, cornelian, diamonds, pearls, Oriental jasper, Chalcedony rubies, topazes, and other precious stones of exquisite workmanship. Here are likewise two globes of an uncommon size; the celestial is enriched with the finest of stones, representing the constellations and fixed stars, and cast such a lustre as can hardly be borne by the naked eye. Here is likewise a curious collection of large medals, &c.

There are seven fountains playing at Florence; and there are 160 statues, the most remarkable of which is the Venus of Medicis, esteemed the best finished and most beautiful piece in the world. The river Arno runs through the city, and divides it into two parts, which communicate with each other by four large handsome bridges built over the river.

Verona is distinguished for its Piazza d'Armi, a most beautiful marble statue representing the Republic of Venice.

Lucca is situated in the centre of a fruitful plain, surrounded with delightful hills, near the river Serchio.

Padua is a very ancient, large, and celebrated city, with an University and Bishop's see.

Venice is one of the richest, most celebrated, and most superb cities in the world.

Milan is famous for its noble Cathedral, 500 feet in length, 200 broad, and 400 high: though not so large as St. Peter's at Rome, it far surpasses it in the number and excellence of its sculptures, and the beauty of its ornaments.

Ravenna is a very ancient town. Theodoric, King of the Goths, resided here; his mausoleum is still to be seen.

Genoa is in the form of an amphitheatre, and is full of magnificent structures.

Naples is a very large, ancient, rich, and trading city. The churches and convents almost vie with those of Rome.

Italy is a mountainous country; for, besides the Alps, there are the Appenines, which run entirely through it, and others. There are also the burning mountains of Vesuvius and Ætna.

The disposition of mountains on the surface of the globe, seems more regular than is generally supposed by those who see but a few of them in particular countries at a time; they are disposed, in reality, in ranges or chains, reaching to a vast extent.

The Appenines, which run through the whole country of Italy, are continued on in a series by mountains of Sicily; and from these the same chain is carried on to Africa, and continues in what are called the mountains of the Moon. From hence another vast knot or link of this extensive chain is carried on to the utmost part of Africa, and terminates, as to our view, at the Cape of Good Hope; and there is no reason to doubt but that the chain is continued in the opposite land, and so on to the utmost limits of the Southern Pole. From hence the same series makes its way again, and beginning anew as it were from the South Pole, is carried on through the southern regions to the Magellanic Straights.

Here the famous Andes, mountains of South America, take it up, and along this vast tract it is carried to the Northern Pole again, terminating where it began, or joining the other part of the chain where we took up the beginning of this account; so that the whole series, making a vast circle round the globe, has no beginning nor end, but in our imagination, or in our ignorance of the parts of the world through which it is carried in the same regularity as in those countries whither commerce has led us, and where maps have shewn them.

I could dwell upon this subject to a very considerable length, and treat of mountains reaching throughout Tartary, from a beginning, or supposed beginning, most truly wonderful, up to behind that vast country; from thence running through Scythia, and forming a series in the East Indies; and continuing along the centre of that immense region to a prodigious extent. But the limits of our work will not admit of it, our plan being to give an useful variety of matter. Before, however, I entirely quit the subject, I shall just remark that, from what has been observed, it appears that chains of mountains absolutely reach round the globe, encompassing it from North to South, and from thence to the North again; and, in the same manner, from East to West, and from thence to the East again. Hence Geographers use the term "chains of mountains," to express those continuations of them which run on ridges along whole countries, and appear disposed in uninterrupted order wherever they are seen.

It is well known that in Europe, the great reservoirs of water which supply whole countries of immense extent, are placed in that vast chain of mountains, the Alps; from which, as from an inexhaustible store, the extensive tracts of fruitful land, which lie below them, are abundantly and healthfully watered.

SWISSERLAND, OR SWITZERLAND.

THERE are, perhaps, few nations less known, and yet scarce any deserve to be more known, than the Swiss; they
are

are placed in a country which, though surrounded with rocks, and in a manner, inaccessible, yet it is very considerable, and of great importance, from its situation. This country was called Helvetia by the ancient Romans, and still retains that name in Italian; though some provinces of Italy and Gaul, now united to it, were not included in the ancient limits of Helvetia. It is bounded on the E. by the Tyrol; on the W. by Franche Comté; on the N. by Sontgaw, the Black Forest, and a part of Suabia; and on the S. by Savoy, the Milanese, and the provinces of Bergamasco and Bressiano. It is about 225 miles in length, and 83 broad, and is separated from the adjacent countries by high mountains. It is very far from being large, in length somewhat less than 300, and in breadth very little more than 100 miles.

The air of this country is keen and piercing, by the extraordinary heaps of snow and ice which always lie in caverns of the mountains, and are not penetrated by the sun.

The soil and produce somewhat vary; the greatest part is rugged in appearance, and naturally barren; and yet, by skill and labour, it is rendered tolerably fruitful. There is good pasture for sheep, and many of the mountains and vales produce wood, forests of pine-trees, &c.

Mountains are very numerous in Switzerland, not only separating almost every canton or province from each other, as their boundary and fortification, but it is particularly divided from Italy by such a long chain of Alps, that there is no passing from one country to another without crossing one of them. The natives of Switzerland are very industrious; and no part of the world produces better soldiers.

Lakes in this country are computed to be near thirty, and there are many mineral baths.

SPAIN.

THE Kingdom of Spain is bounded by the sea on the S. and N. on the W. by Portugal and the Ocean; and on the N. E. by the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from France.

With respect to the air, climate, and soil, Spain is situated about the middle of the Temperate Zone; upon which account, as well as for its many ranges of agreeable hills, pleasant and beautiful plains, and variety of rivers, we may affirm it to be not only a delightful, but healthy country.

The sea coasts are cooled by refreshing breezes from the sea, and the Rivers that run along their vallies and plains communicate much of those cooling winds.

The soil of Spain has been misrepresented, as dry and barren, by several Writers: but though it be true of some places, it is not so in general, as is evident from its various products; some parts are covered with stately trees of several sorts, either for timber or fuel; the rocky parts abound with wild thyme, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which serve to feed a great number of sheep, goats, &c. and give their meat an exquisite taste.

At Granada they have abundance of sugar-canes and nuts, which latter are sent to Madrid as a singular rarity: and the kingdom of Murcia abounds in mulberry-trees and silk-worms, and is said to produce 200,000*l.* worth of raw silk annually.

The Spanish wheat is equal to any in Europe; the barley is also very good, and very plentiful; as are the different kinds of wine, such as Sherry, Malaga, &c. The fruits are, oranges, lemons, almonds, raisons, citrons, olives, figs, dates, pomegranates, &c. as well as all the sorts which grow in England; and the Spanish wool is some of the best in Europe.

Spain is watered by several noble rivers; and there are many lakes, as well as a great variety of medicinal springs.

The mountains deserving our notice are, the snowy mountain called Sierra Nevada, from the great quantity of snow which lies continually on the top of it; it is situated on the south part of Granada, and stretches itself to the Mediterranean. The most celebrated are the Pyrenees, a long chain of very high hills, reaching from Cape Olarso to Hifara in Navarre, through the valley of Salazar, near 200 miles in a strait line. On the frontiers of Biscay and Navarre, there branches out, from the Pyrenean, another considerable chain of mountains. In some of them are precious stones, marble, alum, sulphur, and other minerals.

The

The natives of Spain are represented as proud, haughty, and indolent: even the peasants, like the Welch, keep genealogies of their families. The Spanish ladies are fond of paint, and are kept much at home, through the jealousy of their husbands. The men, at least such as are liberally educated, discover a great genius for learning, as appears from the number of learned men and works which this kingdom has produced, though greatly limited in their researches into some subjects by their excessive bigotry to their religion. As for wit and genius, either in dramatic or romantic performances, they are allowed to be excellent; nor would they be defective in point of politics, were their sentiments not fettered by a despotic government.

Madrid, the capital of the kingdom, is large and populous; it is situated in the middle of a great plain, surrounded by very high mountains, which serve as a defence, for it has no fortifications.

They have many good streets and squares. The King's palace stands upon the South-side of the town, in the extreme part of it, and is situated upon an eminence, which lessens by degrees till it is quite lost on the banks of the river. Its prospect to the country is very agreeable, the fine walks upon the sides of the river contributing not a little to its beauty. The avenue to the palace, on the town-side, is as handsome as the other is agreeable: you approach it through La Calle Mayor, which is a very broad and noble street, consisting of sumptuous buildings on each side: immediately before the palace is a fine square, adorned with rows of gilt balconies; the front of the palace terminates in two pavilions: there are also several courts, which form and support arcades and galleries. The stair-case that leads to the King and Queen's apartment is extremely large, and the cieling embellished with azure and gilding. The statues, bustoes, and pictures, are admirable; but more remarkable still is the hall of arms; the armour of Charles V. Philip II. III. and IV. which pieces are extremely rich in gilding and ornaments: the sides of the rooms are adorned with small arms placed in various figures, and these are diversified with antique swords, darts, arrows, &c. Besides which, there are six men on horseback compleatly armed, and their armour enriched with emeralds; the Chinese arms of steel enamelled,

enamelled, and the sword of Orlando, with a variety of other curiosities of nature and art.

The Casa del Campo is another palace belonging to the King, on the other side of the river Mancanares; about 600 paces beyond the bridge is a very agreeable retirement, and the parks and gardens are of vast extent. Among other curiosities in this palace, there is a fine ménagerie in the park, stored with the noblest kinds of wild beasts, &c.

Buen Retiro is another small palace, built for pleasure and retirement, and stands just without the town, on the opposite side to that where the Royal Palace is; and, though this is the least, it is built in a modern taste, is really magnificent, and rendered very pleasant by gardens, parterres, &c. and an equestrian statue of King Philip, in brass, besides a great variety of paintings, gildings, &c. that would exceed in beauty a credible description.

Lastly, El Florido is another agreeable place of retirement belonging to the King; its situation is just over-against that of La Casa del Campo; it has several gardens, each of which has its terraces, and other agreeable decorations.

The Pardo and Sarfuela are other royal retirements, in a situation where Nature has been exceeding favourable in a delightful prospect, and is intirely rural.

But the grandest and most magnificent structure in Spain, if not in Europe, is the Escorial; three or four of its Monarchs have successively supplied it with immense treasure, in order to enrich and complete a building suitable to the grandeur of the Spanish Monarchy. Authors in general represent the Escorial and Aranjuez as unparalleled, and beyond description: with respect to the former, we shall name some of the principal constituent wonders in this vast pile. It was begun by Philip II. in the year 1536, was 22 years in finishing, and cost 25,000,000 of ducats to complete it. It was built in commemoration of a victory he obtained over the French, called the battle of St. Quintin, gained on the day of St. Laurence, Lorenzo, a famous Spanish Saint. Accordingly the plan of the work resembles a gridiron, the instrument of the Saint's martyrdom. It consists of a royal palace, a church, a convent, a college, and three libraries. There are also convenient apartments for all sorts of mechanics, both for domestics and strangers; fine walks shaded with

with double rows of trees, a vast park, extensive gardens, vast variety of fountains, every thing finished in that superb manner, as if they should vie in richness and beauty; in the church and sacristy, some authors have largely described the stately architecture, the expensive materials, rich furniture, and exquisite paintings, and represented the Escorial as a miracle in art; while others represent Aranjuez as such in nature, as it is situated in a peninsula formed by the conflux of the rivers Tagus and Xarama, which you pass over by two very handsome wooden bridges. Philip III. admired the natural beauties of its situation, and greatly improved them; to which there have been added, such a number of gardens, fountains, parterres, grottoes, and cascades, as render it, without dispute, the most agreeable place in all Spain.

It is in the middle of a fine plain, of four or five leagues extent, diversified with easy risings, and enriched with charming forests, full of stags, boars, and every kind of noble game, in which the fountain of Diana, of Mount Helicon, the fountain of Ganymede, the fountain of Neptune; and, above all, the fountain of Love, is one of the richest and most agreeable of them all; with many other curiosities to attract the attention, and charm the spectator with delight.

The Escorial has 11,000 windows, 14,000 doors, 1800 pillars, 17 cloisters or piazzas, and 22 courts; the libraries consist of 18,000 volumes, and 3000 Arabian manuscripts. The King and Queen have apartments here; whence the transactions of the Court are sometimes dated from the Escorial. The rest of the building is inhabited by Monks.

PORTUGAL.

PORTUGAL is divided into six provinces, and is bounded on the W. and S. by the sea, and on the E. and N. by Spain. Though Spain and Portugal are in the same climate, yet the air of the latter is considerably more temperate than that of Spain, owing to the vicinity of the sea. There is in this country a plenty of oranges, olives, almonds, raisins, figs,

figs, &c. There are many mountains; towards the frontiers of Spain are some which formerly produced gold and silver. The two principal rivers are the Tagus and Duero.

With regard to the people, the mercantile part of society have all the virtues and all the vices peculiar to people of this class. The ladies have not much liberty allowed them by their husbands. Learning is much on the decline here; schools and academies have been suffered to decay.

Lisbon, the capital of the kingdom, is a rich and flourishing place: its harbour will contain several thousand sail of ships, which ride in the most perfect safety.

This city was almost destroyed in the year 1755 by an earthquake. While houses on one side of a street were swallowed up, on the other they were thrown on heaps. Ships and floops in the harbour were overset and lost. The shocks threw people down on their knees or faces as they ran about for shelter; and the ground heaved and swelled like a rolling sea.

Lisbon is situated on the Tagus; and, viewed from the southern shore of the river, affords an elegant and beautiful scene.

ENGLAND.

THIS is an open, level, beautiful country: there are certainly some hills; but those of any note are chiefly towards the North. There are some noble forests, such as Windsor Forest, the Forest of Dean, the New Forest in Hampshire, &c. The latter was made, as history informs us, by the destruction of twenty-two parish churches, and all the villages, manors, chapels, &c. for the space of thirty miles together. There are near seventy forests in England, thirteen chaces, and eight hundred parks. Our ancient Norman Kings were the first who inclosed forests, and settled the jurisdiction thereof. In the course of a few reigns no less than sixty-eight forests were inclosed; the strictest laws were made to secure them, and the severest penalties insisted on all trespassers thereon.

The

The soil of England is different in different parts, but in general very fertile: it produces all kinds of trees, herbs, and fruits. If our vines do not equal those of warmer countries, still they produce very good grapes.

England is surrounded on all sides by the sea, except where Scotland lies, to the N. It is 400 miles in length from Berwick upon Tweed to Chichester; and 370 in breadth from Dover, in Kent, to Senam, in Cornwall: but in other places it varies greatly, particularly in the breadth; for it grows narrower (but not gradually) from the southern coast to the town of Berwick. It is most happily situated in point of commerce; and the English wool is famous throughout the world. The air is in general good, except in the Hundreds of Essex and Kent, the fens in Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire, and some other low marshy grounds. The weather is subject to great variation; but this does not much affect the health of the inhabitants in general; being well accustomed to it, they live as long as the natives of most other countries. There are several noble rivers in this country, such as the Thames, the Severn, the Trent, the Ouse, and others. All sorts of materials for building are produced here. Good stone quarries are seen in several parts of the kingdom; and there are excellent coal-mines at Newcastle, where many thousand ships are annually loaded with coals for London and other parts. There are mines of iron, tin, lead, copper, &c. and no country in the world is better provided with horses of all kinds; they are in general strong, nimble, of good courage, capable of enduring much fatigue, and, both in perseverance and speed, surpass all horses in any part of the globe.

As to the PEOPLE, though they are characterized by those of other countries for generosity, they do not display any great share of it among each other; the higher classes seem not to care much for the lower, and the lower care as little for the higher. With respect to the military part, the English soldiers are as good as any in Europe; and as to the sailors, they are the best in the world.

The metropolis, London, though very ancient, was not in being in the time of Julius Cæsar, though it is mentioned by Tacitus as a place of considerable trade in the reign of Nero; and hence we may conclude it was founded about the time
of

o Claudius, and the year of Christ 42. It is said, but with no great certainty, that it was encompassed with a wall by Constantine. It had seven gates, viz. Ludgate, Aldgate, Cripplegate, Newgate, Aldersgate, Moorgate, and Bishopsgate; which have been all taken down. On the water side there were Dowgate and Billingsgate, long since demolished, as well as the Poltern gate near the Tower, and the greatest part of the walls. Temple Bar was erected in 1670, to determine the bounds of the city westward. This city has sustained great calamities of various kinds; but the most remarkable were, the Plague in 1665, which swept away upwards of sixty-eight thousand persons, and the Fire in 1666, which burnt down thirteen thousand dwelling houses. In memory of this dreadful conflagration, an obelisk was erected, called the Monument, near the place where it began, and which is a very handsome and noble structure.

The numerous public buildings of London being so well known, it is unnecessary to say any thing of them, except that as St. Paul's church is one of the grandest structures in the world, we shall observe that it was built after a model of Sir Christopher Wren's; and that St. Stephen's Walbrooke, is distinguished for its curious and beautiful architecture.

Westminster is generally reckoned part of London, though under a distinct jurisdiction, and is named from its Abbey (formerly called a Minster) a truly venerable building in the Gothic stile. At the east end is the chapel of Henry VII. which has been stiled "a miracle of the world." In Westminster Hall the Law Courts are kept, and adjoining at the Houses of Lords and Commons.

The buildings within the liberty of Westminster have been exceedingly increased, and are now occupied by all the prime nobility and gentry in the kingdom.

Having thus given all that is necessary of the metropolis, we will now speak of the several counties, and begin with that rich and beautiful one,

Berkshire, which, with a fine healthful air, comprehends 527,000 acres of fertile ground, and is 120 miles in circumference: it produces plenty of corn, wood, wool, cattle, &c. and has the advantage of water carriage by the noble rivers of Thames and Kennet.

Buck-

Buckinghamshire contains 441,000, acres, and is 138 miles in circumference: it is an inland county, like Berkshire, and abounds with corn, cattle, and is distinguished for excellent wool.

Bedfordshire contains about 260,000 acres, is 73 miles in circumference, is well stored with cattle, and is famous for the produce of fullers-earth. There are pits near Brick-hill in Staffordshire which also produce this earth; it is likewise produced near Ryegate in Surry, and other places; but the greatest quantity, and the finest in the whole world, is dug in the pits of Bedfordshire.

Cambridgeshire, which is an inland county, contains about 570,000 acres, is 130 miles in circumference, and affords plenty of corn, cattle, and wild fowl.

Cheshire is a maritime county, containing 720,000 acres, and is about 118 miles in circumference. Cheese and salt are its principal commodities; and, for the first article, no place in the world equals it.

Cornwall is a maritime county, in the most western part of the kingdom, and contains about 960,000 acres; it is 150 miles in circumference; and its principal commodities are tin and copper: it also affords plenty of wild fowl, as well as fish, and yields great quantities of samphire, eringo, slate, and marble. With regard to its tin, it supplies a considerable part of Europe with it. The Phœnicians, it is well known, traded for tin to the west coast of Cornwall six hundred years before the commencement of the Christian æra. Whether at that early period, and for many ages after, any other country produced this metal, cannot be determined; but if it was then known in other nations, it was estimated as a staple only in Cornwall.

Cumberland is a maritime county, bounded northward by Scotland, and westward by the Irish sea: it contains about 1,040,000 acres, and is in circumference 168 miles. The air is sharp, and the land in general hilly: it is watered by several rivers, besides lakes and meers. It has mines of black lead, coal, copper, and lapis calaminaris.

Derbyshire is 130 miles in circumference, and contains 680,000 acres, yielding plenty of corn and wood, as well as free-stone, marble, coal, lead, crystal, and alabaster. It is famous for its wonderful peak, which is much visited.

Devonshire is a maritime county, about 200 miles in circumference, and contains near 1,920,000 acres: it is situated on the West of England, and joins to Cornwall, having the sea on the North and South. Here, as in Cornwall, are excellent tin mines, as well as those of lead; and here are produced corn, wool, fowl, and fish, in abundance.

Dorsetshire lies upon the English channel, and is 150 miles in circumference, containing 772,000 acres, and yielding plenty of corn, cattle, wool, fish, and wild fowl, as well as hemp, free-stone, and marble.

Durham, commonly called the Bishopric of Durham, lies far in the north of the kingdom: the air is cold, and the soil not very fruitful. It contains 610,000 acres, and is 107 miles in circumference. Its chief commodities are coal, iron, and lead.

Essex, which lies in the eastern part of England, is bounded by the sea; it is 146 miles in circumference, and contains 1,240,000 acres: it yields corn, cattle, wood, and the best saffron in the world.

Gloucestershire produces wool, wood, iron, and steel, as well as excellent cheese: it consists of 800,000 acres, and is watered by eleven fine rivers. The forest of Dean lies westward of the Severn, and had oak-trees in abundance at one time; but most of them have been destroyed by the iron mines. Cotswood hills are celebrated for feeding fine flocks of sheep.

Hampshire is a very pleasant, healthy, and fruitful county, about 100 miles in circumference, bordering upon the channel, and containing 1,312,500 acres. Here is produced some of the best honey in the world, as well as excellent bacon. Here is the famous New Forest, for the making of which, William the Conqueror destroyed thirty-six churches.

Hertfordshire is a very fertile county, 130 miles in circumference, and contains upwards of 450,000 acres. It abounds in corn, fish, sheep, and cattle, and has an excellent air.

Herefordshire has a good soil and healthful air; it is an inland county, 100 miles in circuit, and contains about 660,000 acres; it is celebrated for the production of cyder.

Huntingdonshire comprehends 240,000 acres, is 67 miles in circuit, and is a fine, open, fertile county.

Kent

Kent is a maritime county, on the east part of the channel, 160 miles in circumference, and contains 1,248,000 acres. It has a good pasture, and is famous for its cherries. Modern botanists think, that, from the Kentish cherry are derived most of the varieties cultivated in the English gardens; such as the early May cherry, the May-duke cherry, the red-heart, white-heart, black-heart, bleeding heart, morello, &c.

Sussex is a maritime county, lying on the channel between Kent and Hampshire, and contains 1,140,000 acres, and is 158 miles in circumference. It is a fertile, healthful and pleasant county. The South Downs are a most delightful part of England.

Lancashire is bounded on the West by the Irish Sea, is 170 miles in circuit, and contains 1,150,000 acres. The soil is good, and the air wholefome.

Leicestershire is a pleasant inland county, 96 miles in circuit. It contains 560,000 acres, and is famous for the production of wool.

Middlesex, which is one of the smallest, though richest county in England, has an excellent soil and healthful air. It is 20 miles long, and 40 broad. The noble river Thames, which runs through it, divides it from Surrey.

Monmouthshire has a fruitful soil and temperate air: it is washed by the Wye and other rivers: it is 80 miles in compass, and contains 340,000 acres.

Norfolk, which borders on the northern coast, on the German Sea, is 180 miles in circuit, and comprehends 1,148,000 acres. The soil is in some parts fertile, in other parts barren.

Northamptonshire is one of the finest inland counties of England, and contains 550,000 acres; its circumference is 120 miles. It has a good air, rich soil, and some fine rivers.

Northumberland is a maritime county, bordering upon Scotland: its soil, towards the sea, is tolerably good; but in other parts thin and barren. There are several lead and coal mines in this county.

Nottinghamshire is 110 miles in circuit, and contains 560,000 acres: its air is healthful, but its soil not very fruitful.

Oxfordshire is an healthful and pleasant county, watered by the Thames and other rivers. It is 47 miles in length, and 29 in breadth.

Rutlandshire contains 110,000 acres, and is 40 miles in circumference: it has a good soil, but is the least county in England.

Shropshire has 890,000 acres, its circuit 134 miles, its air healthful, and its soil fruitful.

Somersetshire is an extensive maritime county in the West of England, in circumference 204 miles, and yields plenty of excellent corn, and has fine pasture for cattle.

Staffordshire has 810,000 acres, and is 141 miles in circuit: its soil differs in different parts; in some prolific, in others barren.

Suffolk is 140 miles in circumference, is a maritime county, and consists of 995,000 acres. The air is wholesome, but the soil various.

Surrey has about 590,000 acres, and is in compass 112 miles. It is an healthful and plentiful county.

Warwickshire is a charming part of England, 155 miles in circumference, and consists of 670,000 acres; the soil is in general good.

Westmoreland is in the North-west of England, is a mountainous country, 120 miles in compass, and has 510,000 acres. It has some vallies fruitful in corn.

Wiltshire consists of 876,000 acres, is 140 miles in circuit, and produces very good wool.

Worcestershire is distinguished for the fertility of its soil: it has 540,000 acres, and is 130 miles in circumference.

Yorkshire, the largest county in England, is divided into three parts, called the North, East, and West ridings. It is 320 miles in circumference, and contains 3,770,000 acres: it is a maritime county, abounding in corn, cattle, fish, fowl, iron, lead, coal; and is celebrated for its breed of horses.

With respect to the counties of Wales, the *Northern Part* consists of Anglesey, Carnarvonshire, Denbighshire, Flintshire, Merionethshire, and Montgomeryshire.

Anglesey is an island, and the most western county of North Wales: it is 80 miles in circumference, and contains 200,000 acres: it is separated from the continent by the river

river Meni; which divides it from Carnarvonshire: it abounds in corn, cattle, flesh, fish, and fowl. Near Kemlyn harbour is a quarry of stone, called Asbestos, which is a beautiful marble.

Carnarvonshire, which is bounded on the N. and W. by the sea, is 110 miles in compass, and contains 340,000 acres. The air is sharp and cold, on account of the high mountains, lakes, and rocks; there are, however, several fruitful bottoms and pleasant vales.

Denbighshire contains upwards of 400,000 acres, and is 116 miles in circumference. It has some good pastures; the soil indeed is hilly, but intermixed with fruitful vallies.

Flintshire contains 160,000 acres, and is in circuit 82 miles. It is full of hills, intermixed with a few fruitful vallies.

Merionethshire is 180 miles in circumference, and contains about 500,000 acres. The air is sharp, on account of the high barren mountains; however, this county feeds large flocks of sheep, many goats, and considerable herds of cattle.

Montgomeryshire is in circuit 94 miles, and contains 560,000 acres; it is watered by several small streams, and has good pasture in some of the vallies.

South Wales contains Brecknockshire, Cardiganshire, Carmarthenshire, Glamorganshire, Pembrokehire, and Radnorshire.

Brecknockshire is 106 miles in circumference, and comprehends about 620,000 acres: its mountains are exceedingly high; but it has fruitful plains and vallies.

Cardiganshire is 94 miles in compass, and contains about 520,000 acres. It lies upon the coast of the Irish Sea: it is watered by several small rivers, which, rising in the mountains, fall into the sea. This county has rich veins of lead and silver ore. The mines have been worked several times to great advantage. Sir Hugh Middleton cleared 2000 pounds a month, for several years together, by these mines.

Carmarthenshire, which is 120 miles in circumference, and consists of 700,000 acres, has many pleasant and rich meadows: the air is mild and healthful, from the county not being so mountainous as others.

Glamorganshire is a plentiful county; in the southern part it is very fruitful; but the northern consists of steep, high, barren mountains. It is in compass 112 miles, and contains 540,000 acres.

Pembrokeshire, which is 93 miles in circumference, and contains upwards of 500,000 acres, has a very fertile soil in the vallies and bottoms near the sea.

Radnorshire, which is very mountainous, is 90 miles in circumference, and contains about 300,000 acres; its soil is not good.

SCOTLAND.

THIS is the North part of the island of Great Britain, it being now united to England, and both constitute one nation. It is bounded on all sides by the ocean except the S. where it is separated from England by the river Tweed, towards the E. by Cheviot Hills, and the river Esk, and Solway Frith towards the W. It is generally reckoned 380 miles in length, from Aldermouth Head, near the Isle of Mull, to Buchaness, and 190 in breadth in the broadest part. Besides the main land, there are 300 islands belonging to Scotland, some of which are very considerable: these are called the Western Islands, the Orkneys, and the Shetland Isles. The air is generally wholesome, though colder than that of England. The soil differs in different parts: there are rich and fertile plains; but the highlands consist of barren hills and heaths. The general productions of this country are much the same as those of England, but not in such plenty. Edinburgh is its capital; where, for some ages before the Union, the Kings of Scotland usually resided in Holyrood House.

Glasgow is a large city of Scotland, and has an University: it is very populous; and there is a noble harbour in the river Clyde, called the New Town, where the largest ships can enter. Hence a prodigious trade is carried on to foreign parts.

IRELAND.

IRELAND.

THIS island is divided into four large provinces, viz. Ulster to the N. Leinster to the E. Munster to the S. and Connaught to the W. and these again are subdivided into counties and baronies. The air is mild and temperate; and the soil, in most parts, good and fertile: even in those places where bogs and morasses have been drained there is good meadow ground. The principal commodities here are corn, flax, wool, hemp, hides, tallow, butter, cheese, wood, fine linen cloth, &c. This latter article they have brought to great perfection, and carry on a vast trade with it.

There is in Ireland such an abundance of cattle, that beef and butter are transported in large quantities into other countries. The country is admirably situated for foreign trade, on account of its excellent harbours. Cork is celebrated for its commerce; it surpasses every town in the kingdom, in this respect, except Dublin.

Ireland lies to the W. of Great Britain; it is bounded on the E. by St. George's Channel and the Irish sea, which separates it from England and Wales; on the N. E. by a channel about fifteen miles broad, which separates it from Scotland; and on the other side by the ocean. It is upwards of 278 miles in length, 155 in breadth. Its capital is Dublin, an handsome, rich, and populous city, with an Archbishop's see, a Parliament, and an University. It is the residence of the Lord Lieutenant. The city is situated in view of the sea on one side, and a fine beautiful country on the other.

HOLLAND.

HOLLAND is the most considerable of Seven United Provinces, lying between the Zuider-Zee, the North Sea, Zealand, and Utrecht. It is divided into N. Holland, W. Friesland, and S. Holland; these together form one province, whose states take the title of Holland and W. Friesland. The Y, a small bay, which is an extension of the Zuider-Zee, separates Holland from W. Friesland. The extent is only about

180 miles in circumference: the land is almost every where lower than the sea; the water is kept out by dams and dykes, which are kept in good repair, lest the province should be laid under water. It is crossed by the mouth of the Rhine and of the Maese, by several small rivers, and by a great number of canals.

Amsterdam is the capital of the Dutch Netherlands; it is large, rich, and populous; it stands upon piles driven into a morass: its walls are lofty and well fortified; and a bridge, joining the rampart, built over the river Amstel, is a grand and noble piece of architecture. The Exchange is a very distinguishing ornament of the city, and the harbour is one of the largest and finest in Europe.

No person who travels in the Dutch Provinces should omit visiting the Hague, which geographers call a village, but which, in point of extent, of grandeur, and elegance, vies with some of the proudest cities in the world.

As to the Dutch, as a people, their character is pretty well known throughout Europe. How far their extreme love of money is reconciled to *requisitions* and *contributions* in support of their allies, I know not. It seems to be, however, the general opinion, that, with respect to a change in government, they have been rather mistaken in their politics.

A French author says, that in Holland the demon of gold, being crowned with tobacco leaves, and seated on a throne of cheese, is publicly adored. From this we are to infer, I conceive, that the Dutch make the *summum bonum* of this life to consist in having plenty of those three articles, gold, tobacco, and cheese.

PRUSSIA.

THE kingdom of Prussia is bounded on the N. by the Baltic Sea, on the E. by Lithuania and Samogitia, on the S. by Poland, and the W. by Brandenburg, Pomerania, and Cassubia. It is about 500 miles long, and 100 broad. It contains a vast number of fine trading towns, besides many populous villages, and has a flourishing inland navigation.

It

It is a very fruitful country, and produces a great deal of corn, flax, and hemp; and its rivers and lakes supply plenty of fish. There are mountains of white sand, covered with oaks and pines; and there the people find a viscous substance, which, being exposed to the air, turns to amber: but the greatest quantity proceeds from the sea; the peasants go to the sea-side, and fish for it with iron rakes. The inhabitants are stout, robust, laborious people.

This country is divided into two parts, Ducal Prussia, otherwise called Polish Prussia, and Regal Prussia, or rather the Kingdom of Prussia, because it was made an hereditary kingdom by the Emperor in 1706. The capital of the Electorate of Brandenburg is Berlin; and here the King has a palace, consisting of four stories, with fine cielings, large apartments, and truly royal furniture; there being particularly so much of it in silver as hardly to be paralleled in the world. The tables, stands, lustres, chandeliers, screens, looking glass frames, couches, armed chairs, being all of that metal; and in that called the Knights Hall there is a beaufet very rich indeed, all one side of the room; in short, look which way you will, there is nothing to be seen but gold, silver, marble, fine paintings, elegant statues, glass, china, &c.

POLAND.

THE Kingdom of Poland is bounded on the W. by the Baltic Sea, Brandenburg, and Silesia; on the S. by Hungary, Transilvania, and Moldavia; and on the N. and E. by the dominions of Russia.

The soil is generally fertile, and produces a vast quantity of corn. It abounds also in cattle: and its forests furnish timber of all sorts, and for most uses. Poland produces all kinds of fruits and herbs, in great abundance; there are likewise vines in many places, whose grapes are grateful to the taste, especially if the summer and harvest are favourable; but their wine is very sharp when drawn off. There is a sort of manna in this country, which they gather in May

May and June ; they sweep it off the grass with sieves, together with the dew, and make several dishes of it.

The mountains in Poland, besides that called Mons Calvus in Lesser Poland, with a monastery on the top, are principally those that make the frontier to Hungary, which is a craggy ridge of 300 miles in length, and called the Cro-pach, or Carpathian mountains. In these mountains there are great variety of ores and minerals.

There is a mountain in the Palatinate of Cracow, of the Lesser Poland, called the Wonderful, covered both with aromatic plants and flowers, and aged oaks, resinous pines and firs, and abounding both in fresh and salt springs, and full of metals and minerals of different kinds. Near the middle, to the South, a spring of very clear water rises with a remarkable noise and vibration ; and its ebullition, or swelling, increases or decreases with the Moon. The odour of the water, in the spring, is observed to be very fragrant, and highly balsamic in taste ; it resembles the sweetness of milk ; and has many medicinal virtues.

The Poles are naturally active, hardy, and robust. The gentry have many virtues ; they are open, generous, and hospitable ; very civil to strangers ; and, for the most part, men of honour : their greatest failing is vanity, and a strong inclination to live, after their manner, in a wild kind of magnificence.

The Polish ladies are generally fair and comely, and abhor painting and washes ; they are said to be women of exemplary piety and virtue, both in their public behaviour, and in their domestic economy. But as to the meaner sort of people, they are, to a fault, ignorant and slothful ; which, however, is rather to be charged on the constitution of their Government, than any natural disposition or temper ; for where the law has rendered peasants incapable of possessing property, one cannot suppose they will take pains to acquire it.

Poland is watered by several rivers ; and Cracow is the capital town.

HUNGARY.

HUNGARY.

THIS country lies along the river Danube; it is about 600 miles in length, and 250 broad. It is bounded on the N. by Poland, on the W. by Germany, and on the E. and S. by Turkey, in Europe. It comprehends three large provinces, viz. Proper Hungary, Transilvania, and Sclavonia. The Danube and Save are two of its principal rivers.

The air here is by no means healthy; the soil, however, produces all the necessaries of life; and the wine, especially that called Tokay, is excellent. The inhabitants are a brave people, but haughty. Almost all the towns have two names; the one German, the other Hungarian. No country whatever is better supplied with mineral waters and baths. Buda is the capital of what is called Lower Hungary, and Presburg of the Upper. The churches and public buildings of Buda are very handsome; and the situation is agreeable, being on the side of a hill, on the S. W. banks of the Danube. Presburg is the residence of the Archbishop of Strigonia, and has very handsome gardens belonging to the palace.

NORWAY.

THE Kingdom of Norway, a dominion of the King of Denmark, is a cold barren country, the ground of which is covered with snow nine months in the year. So very short is the summer, that it by no means produces sufficient corn for the natives; they have, however, a very great fishery; and their stock-fish is sent to all the markets of Europe. This country is the most western part of Scandinavia, and is bounded on the N. and W. by the ocean; on the E. by Swedish Lapland; and on the S. by the Categate Sea, which separates it from Denmark. It is divided into Norway Proper, and its dependencies. Norway Proper comprehends four general governments, viz. Aggerhuys, Bergen, Drontheim, and Wardhuys. The dependencies of
Norway

Norway are Iceland and the Isle of Ferro. Norway had its own Kings till the year 1387, when it was united to Denmark.

There are some iron and copper mines in this country; and oak, deal, tar, and pitch, are produced. The country is very woody and mountainous. The people are robust, and inured to hard labour.

DENMARK.

THE Kingdom of Denmark is bounded on the E. by the Baltic Sea: on the W. and N. by the Ocean, and on the S. by Germany. The country in general is flat, the soil a barren sand, and the air foggy. Denmark, properly so called, consists of Jutland, and the Islands of Zealand and Funen, with the little isles about them; but his Danish Majesty's dominions contain the Duchies of Holstein, Oldenburgh, and Delmonhorst, besides the kingdom of Norway.

The capital is Copenhagen, a large, rich, strong city, with a celebrated University. There are three handsome palaces; and the citadel is a regular fort, defended by five bastions, a double ditch full of water, and several advanced works. The royal library contains upwards of 40 000 manuscripts and printed volumes, collected from various parts; and the Orphan House, the Opera House, and Military School, are very superb structures.

SWEDEN.

THIS country, which is divided into Proper Sweden, Gothland, Nordland, Finland, and Lapland, is situated in the N. of Europe, and bounded on the N. by Danish Lapland and the Ocean; on the S. by the Baltic Sea, and the gulf of Finland; and on the W. by Norway, the Sound, and

in the Catagare; being about 800 miles in length from N. to S. and 350 in breadth from E. to W. It was anciently called Scandinavia. The climate of this country varies very much; the Swedes, however, are long livers. In winter, the cold is excessive; in summer, the heat is almost insupportable. The trees blossom early, on account of the soil being fat and sulphureous, which contributes greatly to vegetation; and, in the summer season, a variety of flowers spring from and embellish the rocks; and there is plenty of fruits in the gardens; the apples, cherries, grapes, melons, &c. have not, however, so good a taste as those of the more southern countries. There are some wild animals in this country, such as bears, wolves, &c. They have plenty of fowls, woodcocks, and partridges, as well as sheep, cows, horses, &c. They have some very good copper, iron, and silver mines. The natives are of a robust constitution, and well calculated for hard labour. There is no country in the world where the women work so hard; for they till the ground, thresh the corn, and even row boats on the sea.

The Swedes boast that they can send 80,000 men into the field; for the peasantry are obliged to furnish both cavalry and infantry. They talk also occasionally of their fleet, in high terms; though it is well known their ships are not half manned.

Stockholm is the capital of the kingdom, and the usual residence of the King; it has several palaces, the roofs of which are covered with copper; and there have been several rocks blown up, in order to render the city as regular as possible, and more extensive.

EUROPEAN TURKEY.

TURKEY, in Europe, is divided by the mountains of Castagnas into N. and S. The N. part comprehends Walachia, Moldavia, Bessarabia, Croatia, Bosnia, Dalmatia, Servia, Bulgaria, and Romania or Rumelia. The S. part contains ancient Greece, in which are seven large provinces.

vinces, viz. Albania, Epirus, Macedonia, Janna, Livadia, the Morea; and the islands of the Archipelago.

Constantinople, which is the capital of the Ottoman Empire, is a very celebrated city. It is most charmingly situated between the Black Sea and the Archipelago, from whence it is supplied with all necessaries. The palace, or seraglio, of the Grand Seignior, which is on the sea-side, is encompassed by walls, flanked with towers, and separated from the city by canals. The city is built in a triangular form; and, as the ground rises gradually, there is a fine view of it from the sea. There are great numbers of mosques, caravanseras, and other public buildings, which are truly superb and splendid. The Temple of Sophia, a very antique mosque, excels all the others in grandeur and magnificence. The dwelling-houses, however, are, in general, very mean; and the streets are narrow and dirty. The people consist chiefly of Turks; and the rest are Jews and Christians.

RUSSIA.

THIS vast empire is partly in Europe, and partly in Asia. It is bounded on the N. by the Frozen Sea; on the S. by Great Tartary, the Caspian Sea, and Persia; on the E. by the Sea of Japan; and on the W. by Poland and Sweden.

It must be naturally imagined, that a country of such immense extent must lie in different climates, and that the soil varies very much: the most fertile part is near the frontiers of Poland; the North part is extremely cold, and over-run with forests, in which there are many wild beasts.

There are in this country large quantities of silk and cotton; also skins, furs, cloth, leather, tallow, &c. and almost all the mercantile articles of India, Turkey, and some European countries. It is divided into Western Russia, Eastern Russia, Muscovite Lapland, and Muscovite Tartary; which are again subdivided into several provinces.

The natives are in general robust, well-shaped, and of tolerable good complexion.

The

The seas of this empire are the Baltic, the White Sea, the Frozen Ocean, the Black Sea near the frontiers of Turkey, and the Caspian Sea. There are also five large rivers, viz. the Nieper, or Boristhenes, which runs between Lithuania and Poland, the Wolga, which runs through the middle of the country, and falls into the Caspian Sea; the Don, which, after several turnings, runs into Little Tartary, and falls into the sea of Asoph; the Dnie, which falls into the White Sea; and the Oby, which empties into the Frozen Ocean. There are also several lakes.

The armies of Russia are numerous: there were no fleets before the reign of Peter the Great.

The Czar, or Emperor, is a despotic Prince, and his subjects are all vassals. The capital of Russia is Petersburg, a large, handsome city, built by Peter the Great, in 1703.

That part of Tartary which belongs to Russia has no fixed bounds; it is reckoned to be about 1500 miles in length from E. to W. and 750 in breadth, from N. to S. The modern maps divide it into Siberia. Tungusia is another part; also Jakubia, Ockotia near the Eastern Sea, and Kamtschatka, which is contiguous to Great Tartary. Siberia, which comprehends the most northern part of the Russian Empire in Asia, is about 2000 miles in length from E. to W. and 750 in breadth from N. to S. Hither the Czar sends the great men of the Court into exile who offend him, as well as other persons. Kamtschatka is the eastern extremity of the Russian Empire, and is inhabited by different people; those to the N. are of a very savage and cruel nature.

We must not quit our account of Russia without taking notice of the city of Moscow, which is divided into four parts; of which that in the middle is surrounded by a strong wall of red stone, and contains a palace: and what is called the Church of the Annunciation has a vast vault, wherein are the tombs of the Czars; it is covered with gilded plates of copper, as are all the other churches, which are very numerous.

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